

THE SATURDAY REVIEW

POLITICS, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 2,377, Vol. 91.

18 May, 1901.

6d.

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We beg leave to state that we decline to return or to enter into correspondence as to rejected communications; and to this rule we can make no exception. Manuscripts not acknowledged within four weeks are rejected.

NOTICE.—This number contains the third of a series of five articles on Army Reform, which deal with the following points: (1) *The Breakdown of the Voluntary System*; (2) *Conscription*; (3) *Conscription as Applied to Great Britain*; (4) *The same continued*; (5) *The Distribution of the Home Army*.

NOTES OF THE WEEK.

Military debates perhaps more than any other show the mischief the party system works, and always must work, in the treatment of great matters requiring technical knowledge. Political necessities are constantly mixing the issues so that those who know are not able to vote according to knowledge. The leader of the Opposition doubtless thought himself very clever so to frame his amendment that it might cover absolutely contradictory propositions, and so catch votes either way. It might mean that Mr. Brodrick's scheme was too ambitious, what Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman *did* mean; it might mean that it was too slight, largely a scheme on paper, what many capable soldiers and Conservatives think. But the clumsiness of the Liberal tacticians prevented their profiting by their own chicanery; for over and above both these meanings, the amendment as moved by the Opposition leader signified formal censure of the Government, amounting to dismissal. This at once relieved Conservative critics of all embarrassment. By voting for the amendment, they would be actually affirming what they did not believe, while by voting against it they could at worst be taken to be giving a more general approval of the Government scheme than they wished to express. Hence the failure of the Opposition's attack. The Government majority was 116.

But if it did not hurt the Government, the party handling of this debate was highly prejudicial to the business discussed. It silenced many useful criticisms on the Conservative side, while it had no such effect on Mr. Churchill. So nothing was gained and something was lost. Mr. Brodrick's scheme has its points but it has also far-reaching defects, and it is a pity that the subject could not be threshed out on its merits without

reference to ulterior considerations. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's contribution was not very edifying from the military side. He wanted to blame the Government for attempting a too big, and therefore un-English, scheme of army development at the same time that he sneered at them for merely re-casting the army on the corps system instead of adding to its strength. He was not successful. He is an adept at sitting on the top of the fence but he has not yet acquired the art of sitting on both sides of it at the same time. Generally the debate was disappointing. It has often struck us, and it is a commonplace with intelligent soldiers, that the House is curiously deficient in thoroughly competent debaters of military matters. It appears that soldiers are not speakers and speakers are not soldiers. Captain Lee, however, is a promising recruit.

The best feature of Mr. Brodrick's speech was its spirit. Whether his proposals are satisfactory or unsatisfactory, his arguments good or bad, he seems to approach his subject in the right way—a way to which Secretaries of State for War have for long been strangers. He assumes no official optimism either as to the present state of the army or as to his own suggested reforms. That is a very real gain. In the way of argument, he said nothing new on Thursday. In fact not much was said at all that could count for edifying. Mr. Asquith so spoke as to accentuate public weariness with civilian criticism of military matters. Mr. Asquith appreciates the acuteness of the recruiting difficulty, but is persuaded that it can easily and satisfactorily be got over without compulsory service. There is no need to pay attention to the pious opinion of a mere Parliamentarian that what he wants can easily be done. Everyone thinks that, when it is not he who has to do it, especially when the subject-matter is one of which he has no knowledge.

The Leader of the Opposition made a great, or at any rate a big speech at Bradford on Wednesday to celebrate the festivities of the National Liberal Federation in the former capital of the "sturdy Liberalism of the North." These proceedings are hailed by the Radical press as evidence of real recovery on the part of the Liberal party. Well, they may be a good symptom, but if so, they would seem to indicate that the Liberal case must have been well nigh desperate, almost justifying the Duke of Devonshire's round diagnosis in his speech at the Hôtel Métropole that "There is no Liberal party." This remark, we confess, seemed to us at the time rather foolish. But

either way the proceedings do not seem very much to have cheered Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman who devoted himself to drawing the darkest possible picture of the South African campaign, which he admits he has given up trying to understand.

This admission throws light on the title of the latest Liberal War Minister to pose as a military critic. Sir Henry was perhaps on safer ground in his diatribe against some of Mr. Chamberlain's developments. Mr. Chamberlain in his "Imperialism in excelsis" vein is not always pleasant, but at any rate he never makes himself absolutely foolish. Sir Henry does when he talks of "the Dutch in the old colonies" having been "perfectly loyal subjects." Apparently he has never met a single person who has taken an active part in the campaign, or he would know that disloyalty amongst the Cape Dutch has been by far the greatest difficulty we have had to encounter. To be "perfectly loyal subjects" means more than to refrain personally from taking up arms against the King's troops; it means refraining from helping the enemy with money, material, or information.

There has been an inexplicable outbreak of pessimism in connexion with the war. The "Times" correspondent has croaked of the existence of 18,000 Boers who are ready to take the field at the least encouragement. An attempt has been made to show that both the last aggressive movements, in the north-east as well as in the south-east, have signally failed. But no one supposes that there are not 18,000 Boers still at large who if circumstances were attractive would be willing enough to fight. The point is that circumstances are not favourable. Ammunition, we know, is running short; General Fourie is said to be anxious to surrender, and many Boers are without horses. With regard to the clearing of the Transvaal the operations have been eminently successful in capturing men, places, ammunition and stock. They have not brought the war to an end for the very good reason that this was not their immediate intention. A stern chase must necessarily be a long one, and it is long since any Boer force has made resistance. The lists of deaths from enteric are still sadly long and a few men have been killed; but these things must be, and must be endured while the work of the war is being well done. According to rumour de Wet is again in Cape Colony; and if true it may be good news. Some small parties of Boers have been scattered in the neighbourhood of Mafeking and many surrenders are reported from Pietersburg.

Sir Godfrey Lagden's lecture at the Colonial Institute ought to be read by every opponent of the Colonial Secretary. The state of the Basutos, the only one of its genus in South Africa, has developed a satisfactory form of self-government and attained to internal prosperity thanks to the "patience sympathy and consistency" extended by the Colonial Office. At the beginning of the war many imaginative pictures were drawn of the 40,000 Basuto warriors, mounted on rough ponies and carrying axes at the belt who would swoop down on us or the Boers as the politics of the moment directed. The number of their warriors is estimated at 40,000, and they possess rough ponies, 15,000 of which were used by our troops; but the people are peace-loving, respectful, and eager to welcome improvements in education, in government, and in mechanical arts. At the same time when things were going badly for us, the 7,000 fighting men, who watched the siege of Wepener and cheered whenever one of our shells found a target, were only prevented from falling on the Boers by the tactful repression of Sir Godfrey Lagden. He has done a great work, and as Resident Commissioner directed a singularly interesting experiment in colonisation. Now that the Orange River Colony is in English hands it will be possible to repress the last great enemy to the country, the trade in brandy.

We are not accustomed here to consider Lord Salisbury as unduly optimistic, but that is the surprising discovery made by the "Temps" in regard to his speech made at the banquet of the Nonconformist

Unionist Association at which he and the Duke of Devonshire were present. In the matter of the war and the general opinion, as the "Temps" takes it to be, that England is exhausting her natural forces, it appears Lord Salisbury represents the English aristocracy and not the English people. That is very extraordinary, for an Englishman would hardly need any other proof that Lord Salisbury was representing a popular as distinguished from an aristocratic cause than his receiving the enthusiastic support of an association whose distinctive claim is that it is Nonconformist.

When the "Temps" can make such fatuous criticism, it discounts automatically our estimate of foreign opinion. It is precisely the existence of such bodies as the Nonconformist Association and the Liberal Imperialists, to which the Duke of Devonshire made a reference, that shows how the policy of the party of which Lord Salisbury is the head has secured national support independent of old party ties. The Nonconformists whom Mr. Gladstone courted have helped in frustrating his Irish policy and in undoing the effects of his South African campaign. The Liberal Imperialist is another indication of the triumph of ideas which have sapped the old Liberalism. Very naturally the Nonconformist banquet was the occasion of a retrospect which recalled dangers already overcome and encouraged hopes of successful opposition, if they should recur in the future: and that was the reason of Lord Salisbury's optimism which has so greatly annoyed the "Temps."

Lord Curzon has finished a cold weather season of arduous and fruitful work in the plains and returned to Simla to mature some of the schemes of reform which still remain on his programme. The details of the new frontier arrangement require very careful adjustment in consultation with the Panjab Government when the officials on both sides meet at the summer capital. But perhaps the most prominent question now to be treated is the educational problem which the Viceroy hopes to deal with next autumn. He took the opportunity en route of delivering to the managers and students of the Aligarh College a speech full of encouragement, paying a well-deserved tribute to that admirable institution. The association of religious with secular learning which characterises the indigenous systems of Oriental education has been retained at Aligarh and combined with strenuous efforts to promote Western thought and culture. The great Mohammedan University of the future is foreshadowed at Aligarh.

In the meantime official India has been convulsed, scandalised and amused by a cause célèbre known as the "Pennell Case." Mr. Pennell is a judge in Bengal and he has private grievances against the Government and its executive officers whose ways and actions he has made it his business to denounce. He conceived the novel idea of importing his personal views into his judgment in a case of murder, premising that other and graver issues were involved than the conviction or acquittal of the prisoners. On this peg he hung eighty printed pages vituperating a host of officials from the Viceroy down, in matters not in the most remote degree connected with the case before him. As a sort of obiter dictum he sentenced to death or transportation three men, whose conviction was promptly quashed by the High Court and he committed the chief European police officer to gaol on a charge of perjury which proved equally unsustainable. A travesty of justice infringing every canon of judicial propriety is the verdict of the High Court on the judge's procedure. These vagaries of an ill-balanced mind and degradation of judicial office are perhaps most mischievous in their effect on the native mind. The Hampden-fed Bengalis of the State schools set up Mr. Pennell as the martyr and champion of popular liberty and organised a sort of Mafeking day in his honour when the Government suspended him from the exercise of functions he had abused. Where was the humour, which would have saved these comic patriots from demonstrations in honour of a judge fresh from the unjust condemnation of three of their countrymen?

The foreign post offices in Turkey have in the eyes of the native authorities always been good things to get rid of if possible. Their recent seizure of the foreign post bags and the claim to distribute, which means the right to distribute or not as they please, has brought about a condition of affairs which has caused the greatest inconvenience and indignation. When the mails have come in, the representatives of the Powers have had to prevent them by force from being taken by the Turkish authorities, and the outgoing mails have had to be sent in charge of embassy officers on account of the refusal of the Porte to convey them. The object of course is to force the Powers into withdrawing their post offices, but that is impossible on account of the quite Turkish postal arrangements whose object is not to distribute postal matter but to use it for political espionage. Viscount Cranborne in the House of Commons referred in a reply he gave to Mr. Henniker Heaton to the several occasions on which England has agreed to withdraw the British post office provided other Powers agreed to do the same. That is a remote contingency and is made the more remote by what has just happened.

Our parliamentary purists here have been so importunate over the votes of directors and the pecuniary interests in companies of Ministers that it is interesting to discover a parallel case, even if we have to go so far as Hungary to find it. The Liberal Government there has just passed through a crisis owing to a Bill which it has introduced for disabling members from sitting in the Lower House who are directors of companies or have any dealings with the State. The latter disqualification is of course one with which we are familiar but we have hitherto excepted directors and shareholders. But we have never gone so far as to have the Government nominating members for directorships as part of its system of patronage, and that has been the case in Hungary. This close connexion of the politician with houses doing business with the Government has aroused public feeling, and the Government was compelled to bring in its legislation. It is objected by its opponents that it will exclude the middle classes and the nobility from public life. That is denied; but the general answer that there are other careers than Parliament for them seems a good deal too wide, if the Bill really only hits those who belong to firms actually contracting with the Government.

Both the Berlin and the Vienna correspondents of the "Times" are agreed that in Germany and Austria American competition with Europe is being regarded with the utmost alarm. Count Goluchowski's prediction that at no distant date America would become the most dangerous rival of Europe furnishes both countries with a text on which they are preaching bitter sermons. The American system of excessive Protection enables the Trusts to make any price they like for the home market and to sell goods for export at a reduction of as much as 50 and 60 per cent. on the home prices. This means destruction to German and Austrian manufactures as the similar competition of American corn has meant the destruction of the Hungarian grain-growers in the markets of Central and South-Eastern Europe. But governments in Germany and Austria are not condemned to sit idly by, and they have entered into communication with the different branches of production both industrial and agricultural to ascertain where the American shoe pinches and to devise common measures of protection. A commercial understanding between Russia and Germany might force America to accommodate her policy to the European Commercial System, and the "Cologne Gazette" and the "Wiener Allgemeine Zeitung" alike call for a Pan-European alliance to adopt the Napoleonic policy of a Continental system of exclusion against the United States.

In view of our threatened supremacy in industry and commerce there is something almost pathetic in the Philistine indifference of the British public towards higher education. It is true that some of the blame

must be put on our educational authorities. The School Board solemnly offer the panacea of evening classes in which a small percentage of the pupils have some twelve lessons per subject a session. In many counties the standard of technical work is lamentably low, and the technical committees have too often frittered away the "whisky" money on such by-subjects as basket-weaving, cookery, or mere industrial training of the hand and eye. London and Manchester are, indeed, honourable exceptions. But it is still substantially true that we leave off technical education at an age at which other nations start. A striking proof of this is that the Massachusetts Institute of Technology is to hold next June in London an entrance examination for intending students. While we are fussing about technical instruction, our youths are invited to go to the United States for their training!

Lord Salisbury's speech during the debate on Lord Camperdown's Bill to constitute new licensing bodies and new appeal courts in licensing cases had nothing to do with the Bill. He said no word about it. The speech was a pæan to free trade in drink and everything else; and was delivered to explain that it is not the intention of the Government to introduce any general licensing measure. The Government, as Lord Belper ought simply to have explained, will not commit itself further than to press on the Bishop of Winchester's Bill dealing with habitual drunkards with certain of their own amendments introduced into it. The inconsistency is somewhat apparent in holding that the question of licensing cannot be touched because it raises the limitation of the supply of things people have a right to demand and yet in bringing in a Bill to punish those who take too much of that same article.

What Lord Salisbury means is that he will have nothing to do with the subject if he can help it. The present system is not free trade and any alteration would be in the nature of further control; so that he will take no part in it. That, we should think, will prove to be ultimately an impossible attitude; but at present it is Lord Salisbury's humour. We are less enamoured of free-trade arguments in most things than we were; but even when the doctrine was most flourishing the regulation of the sale of intoxicants continued as it has done from the very earliest days. Lord Camperdown's Bill was defeated and it may be a good or a bad method of regulation; but the licensing question can hardly be disposed of by letting it alone.

Talking is a real part of the work of Parliament. Lord Hugh Cecil distinguished it aptly from a debating society where speeches are usually limited to ten minutes to give everybody a chance of learning to speak merely for the sake of the speech. The Twenty Minutes' Bill looks at first like a saving of time but on the principle that every man demands his rights everybody would speak up to the extreme limit. Public opinion may have some effect in keeping speeches under that limit if members listen to Mr. Ritchie, who really appealed to their sense of what is good form. But there is another reason which perhaps weighed more than anything else. The private member is always complaining of the unfair advantages of the front benches: and yet here was a Bill to leave them untouched while the private member was to be curtailed by law. That was fatal. If it were sought to avoid the wholesale exemption of the front benches by taking the sense of the House in each case, what a strange way of saving time by raising a debate on such a question! These difficulties proved fatal and, as Lord Salisbury said about the public-houses, attempted regulation has broken down and free trade triumphs.

Mr. Asquith pointed out the real difficulty in dealing with the subject with which the London Council for the Promotion of Public Morality is concerned. The offensive displays of disorder in the streets and the circulation of pornographic writings are prevalent not because there is lack of legislation but because the police are checked in administering the law. If the Council can create a public opinion that in these matters the police ought to be given a freer hand, at least the more patently

objectionable social irregularities would disappear. But from past experience the police have learned that it is extremely likely that attempts strictly to exercise the powers they have—and in summariness and secrecy these fall far short of Continental administrative powers—would bring on them denunciations from a class of theorists, whose views on the subject of vice in the abstract are those of the Council but diametrically opposite as to public action in regard to it. These people prefer the indifference of the police to their mala fide working of the law, if they were urged by public opinion to be more active in administering it. They would quote Tammany Hall in quite a different sense from Mr. Asquith, who prefers the apparently stringent but really collusive administration of the New York police. No doubt the Council is justified in believing such abuses are not possible with us.

The appointment to a deanery often carries with it some notion of finality, and it is contrary to all precedent for a dean to be appointed bishop in his own diocese. But it is altogether good that precedent has been disregarded in the case of the new Bishop of Oxford. Dean Paget has every quality for making a successful bishop and is especially well fitted in character accomplishment and experience to the diocese of Oxford. He is a fine scholar—he won the Hertford in 1873—and will begin his new office with a store of respect and acquaintanceship which is by the nature of things rarely possible for a newly appointed bishop, and he has become within the last few years a speaker of quite exceptional force and charm. Those to whom he has been known as "the Dean" will be thinking less of the excellence of the appointment than of the loss to Christ Church. The Dean had grown more popular each year as the depth of his interest in all that concerned the House was realised and his strength of friendship found beneath a courtesy of manner which we are afraid must be called old-fashioned. His place will be very hard to fill.

The Bishop of London recently preached at S. Paul's in aid of the Decoration Fund, and it is evident that a fresh effort will be made to carry on the work in the face of nearly universal condemnation. It is understood that the space over the Whispering Gallery in the dome will be the next part attacked. Protests addressed to the committee are quite unavailing, and the only effective way of checking the work is to check subscriptions. It is to be hoped that the Corporation and City companies will think twice before reopening their purses. Let them reply to appeals by quoting the two conditions laid down in the original Appeal of the Decorations Committee. The first was that Sir Christopher Wren's intentions and ideas should be scrupulously respected, the second that thoroughly digested drawings and models should be submitted to public criticism. The present decorator is avowedly out of sympathy with Wren, and his designs have not been submitted to criticism before being carried out.

The decision of the Stock Exchange Committee to suspend the buying-in rule against members who were under contract to deliver Northern Pacific Common shares averted a big smash at the settlement. Two or three of the biggest brokers and jobbers would have been forced to "hammer" themselves, and would of course have brought down with them a crowd of smaller people. The London Stock Exchange has now shown Wall Street that it has no intention of being made its football, or of allowing its members to be ruined by the cut-throat quarrels of rival railway bosses. What will be the end of the dispute no one knows, though as the meeting of the Northern Pacific shareholders is not until October it will presumably be possible to get stock over here in the interval. The prices of American rails are slowly but surely recovering, though the outside operator has had a shock to his nerves which it will take him a week or two to get over. Other markets are quiet but steady. As Rand Mines are over 43 and Gold Fields over 8, the Kaffirs may be described as firm. West Africans are "sticky" and West Australians stagnant. Home rails are quite uninteresting and Consols stand at 94.

ON THE WAY TO CONSCRIPTION.

THE political aspect of the army debate is ephemeral; therefore we prefer to consider it simply upon its real and military merits. It has shown us once more that the recruiting question at present blocks the way to all other considerations; and that before anything else can be definitely settled, that difficulty must be solved. But the real interest of the debate to the country is its bearing upon the necessity of a form of conscription, and its demonstration of the inadequacy of our existing system. It is true that the actual references to conscription were few; and that no one had the temerity to commit himself openly to the advocacy of so contentious and revolutionary a change, though, reading between the lines of speeches, it is easy to see that every speaker of any account was thinking of it. Lord Stanley at least made it clear that his sympathies leaned in that direction. But far more important than any actual references to that forbidden subject was the universal admission that recruiting—as we have maintained in the series of army articles we are now publishing—is the real crux of the military question. Mr. Brodrick's scheme stands or falls by that, and virtually all else in the connexion does so as well. He himself said "All that is connected with the regular army must be subject to the recruiting test." The alternatives which face us in the solution of this problem were succinctly and accurately summarised by the Financial Secretary of State for War. We must either proceed on the old lines, and endeavour to improve matters by spending more money on the auxiliary forces, increase the pay, or resort to conscription. As evidence that the Government is alive to the issues before them, this is certainly satisfactory. But the methods by which they propose to cope with the difficulty can hardly be commended in the same degree. Whilst practically admitting that the class from which our soldiers are drawn is drained to its utmost recruiting capacity, they do not propose to tap a different class by the inducement of higher pay, in fact they do not suggest anything which really will remedy matters. It is true, as Lord Stanley said, that the military wage, all things considered, compares very favourably with the current wage in the labour market. But the real point, as Captain Lee remarked, is that such a wage does not attract the men. It is somewhat remarkable that Mr. Wyndham practically ignored the existence of this vital and apparently insurmountable difficulty in obtaining men. Yet, as Sir Charles Dilke pointed out, there will, after the war is over, be a still greater strain on our recruiting resources, and it is inevitable that a reaction should set in. Moreover, as regards the Militia, their treatment and experience during the past year are hardly likely to stimulate recruiting either in the commissioned or non-commissioned ranks. Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman's position is as poor as it is untenable. Because we have not required to put a large army in the field between the 'fifties and now, therefore it is likely to be fifty years more before we require to do so again! Other speakers, realising the true bearings of the case, resorted to various devices in order to avoid conscription; but not, it must be admitted, with the happiest effect. For while some contended that an increased rate of pay would attract the requisite number of recruits, others, equally competent to judge, maintained the contrary. Again a third class, who thought that increased pay would meet the issue, regarded the increase which would be sufficient as quite out of the question. Thus the net result of the critics' deliberations comes to this—either we must resign ourselves to having no real reform at all, or else we must resort to some means of conscription. Yet another group evaded the difficulty by denying the need of an increased or even of so large an army as we now possess. These conclusions we should dismiss as unworthy of serious consideration, did not the criticisms of our scheme by the military correspondent of the "Westminster Gazette" seem to place him in a manner amongst this category of critics. He is an authority one cannot ignore, and it is true, as he points out, that many thinking men on the Continent are beginning to ask

themselves whether their bloated armaments are not a costly mistake, and whether they would not do better with a smaller army of professional experts. However, his statement that while we pay enormously we fail to get either numbers or experts, is surely an entire condemnation of our present system.

To us the question of recruiting and the necessity of a form of conscription is the really important feature of the debate, and therefore we have dealt with it first. Coming to the details of Mr. Brodrick's scheme, we may say—as we have said before—that while we welcome it as a step in the right direction, and as somewhat in consonance with our own ideals, we take exception to it on the ground that in some respects it goes too far, and that in some it does not go far enough. We hold that it goes too far because, in spite of Mr. Wyndham's argument that we must find occupation for generals who have distinguished themselves, it will not furnish sufficient work for this array of talent: and not far enough in so much that it outlines no plan by which men can be obtained. For the comparatively few regulars which—even after the war—we shall possess in this country will make the keeping up of complete army corps staffs a waste of energy and money. Imagine the case of some of the scattered auxiliary divisions and brigades. On this point Mr. Brodrick is not clear. First he tells us that the staffs are always to exist, and then that they are not in all cases to be kept permanently. Mr. Wyndham admits that the sixteen district commanders have usually speaking but little to do. Yet he proposes that, though their number is to be increased to sixty-four, the regular establishment shall remain the same. In fact on paper we should possess a formidable force with innumerable generals and their respective staffs; but in reality we should be little better off than we are to-day. In any case we may say that the scheme does not rest on very secure foundations; since we are still told that twelve battalions is to be the permanent garrison for the whole of South Africa—a proposal which shows that the Government has not duly profited by its lesson that a small garrison in South Africa is a danger to the Empire and an estimate which some might think it a little disingenuous to calculate upon. Captain Lee's suggestion that one army corps might permanently be stationed in South Africa—"the strategical centre of the Empire"—is worthy of attention. But it is to be feared that for a generation at least the force stationed there—and at least there should be one army corps—could not with safety be removed elsewhere. As to the army corps system, which is a bugbear to so many, we are in principle at one with Mr. Brodrick; and we consider that the trend of the South African war has gone far to prove its necessity and expediency. Owing to the excessive, and—as some maintain—necessary dispersion of forces at the commencement of the war, the army corps on its arrival was broken up. But it is significant that the first thing Lord Roberts had to do in order to effect substantial results was to reconstruct another as rapidly as possible. It may be very satisfactory to know that the Secretary of State and the Commander-in-Chief are in complete accord, and that Lord Stanley acts as a kind of "political barometer." But that is little enough in the direction of army reform. It may also be satisfactory to know that the scheme is the joint product of their combined labours. But in that case we may be pardoned—considering that in January last Lord Roberts was entirely new to the work in hand—for doubting whether the scheme can be called the weighty product of serious thought. In fact, if we are not mistaken, a redistribution of districts is exactly what Lord Wolseley and other leading authorities had persistently advocated long before Mr. Brodrick and Lord Roberts arrived on the scene. Indeed their share in this work seems largely to have consisted in unduly extending the scheme so as to include the Militia and Volunteer units. In counting such as integral elements in their field army, the Government hardly seem to appreciate the real meaning of that term.

THE RETENTION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

SOME clever person will probably say that in the choice of a text for this article we have been a little previous. Time enough, he may think, to talk of retaining South Africa when you have got it. A natural but disastrously foolish way of confronting problems of State. The moment the problem of reconquest is solved, the problem of retention is upon us. If we have never considered a question until we have to answer it, are we likely to answer well? We are under no illusion as to the end of the war. It is not over, but the signs of the campaign are such as to make the question of the retention, as apart from the reconquest, of South Africa eminently one of practical politics.

We shall realise what that question means, if we abstract from all other aspects of the situation and consider the South African struggle solely as one between two races for supremacy. The merits of the struggle do not now affect the practical position; nor does its occasion. Lord Salisbury in his speech to the Non-conformist Unionists very wisely insisted on the alternative of Dutch or English supremacy as the real question that has always been at issue. We are glad to note a tendency amongst speakers and writers to drop the discussion of this alleged grievance on this side or that, and to concentrate attention on the permanent cause of difference that must have come up for settlement some time or another, whatever was done or avoided in the way of internal administration on either side. Force, the ultimate arbiter of every parallel situation, is deciding in favour of British supremacy. But that supremacy will never be unchallenged until either the difference in race is effaced or the aspirations of one of the rival peoples are rendered absolutely and obviously hopeless. It must not be supposed that the Boers will tire or give up in disgust because they are beaten in a protracted campaign. As they fight to the last and think no method of harassing the enemy that cunning can suggest beneath them, so in peace they will wait doggedly and deem no opportunity to damage their conquerors unworthy to be taken. It is well to have no illusions on this point. The protraction of the war is not due to foreign adventurers or social outcasts. It is the old true-veldt Boer that is fighting to a finish, and he is supported in his desperate struggle by the most powerful of all secular sentiments that can influence men's conduct—love of country and of independence. After the formal pacification has been accomplished this sentiment will remain with him. He cannot be expected to admit that he has justly forfeited his independence, or to realise that his love was disastrous to his country. Nothing but time and confusion with the dominant people can crush his passive resistance, and in the meantime nothing but the immigration and the growth of a widely spread English population exceeding the Boers in numbers can satisfy him of the final hopelessness of active opposition.

The twofold process of converting the Boer to acquiescence, however grudging, in an English régime and of amalgamating the two races of colonists can, as we have often said before, be achieved only by the method of agricultural settlement. The virtual division of the two races into townsmen that are English, and countrymen that are Dutch, must be broken through by the establishment of English immigrants upon the land. The enormous advantage which would result from the introduction of a considerable body of English immigrants into the sparsely populated rural districts of Boer South Africa is already recognised; the only question is how the settlement is to be effected. The letters which our advocacy of this proposal has elicited have shown that two main objections have presented themselves to the minds of our correspondents. First, that the agricultural capacity of the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies—to narrow the argument to the immediate issue—is insufficient to provide homes for the sort of settlers who would alone serve our purpose: and, second, that England, owing to the decay of English agriculture, is unable to supply the right sort of men to make good colonists. The sturdy yeomen and farm labourers, and the self-reliant adventurers of every class who only wanted a grant of land in the colonies to make

a home for themselves, have become scarce, if, indeed, they have not altogether died out.

Happily, it is the special function of the colonist to confound the theorist all the world over. Before colonisation every newly discovered country is malarial and unproductive. In the seventeenth century not individuals but whole shiploads of English colonists died off like flies in the plantations on the Atlantic seaboard of North America. Fifty years ago the North Island of New Zealand was stigmatised as a death trap: it is now recognised as probably the healthiest country in the world. And the same things *mutatis mutandis* are said of every new colony in turn. It cannot be predicated of any individual emigrant that he will succeed or fail, however favoured may be the country where he has chosen to settle. But in respect of the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies it may at least be said that the English emigrant to these countries will have the experience of nearly a century of English colonisation to guide him. He will do well to garner the results of this experience, and disregard the *a priori* arrangements of timid theorists. We had a sample of the value of such theoretic criticism the other day at the Colonial Institute, when Professor Robert Wallace read his paper on "Agriculture in South Africa." In the discussion which followed the lecture every speaker with singular unanimity testified to the marked divergence of opinion which separated conclusions based upon actual experience of the country from the pessimistic views taken by the lecturer.

So too the record of previous English colonisation in South Africa is the best answer to the second objection. The Albany Settlement of 1820 was formed at a period when English agriculture had not been subjected to any of the adverse influences to which it owes its present decline; still the class of emigrants that were then sent out were by no means wholly satisfactory. Contemporary reports describe them as being mainly distressed artisans ill adapted to the occupation of a new country, and wholly unversed in agricultural pursuits. But in spite of the unsuitable character of these emigrants, and of the unprecedented physical disasters which came upon them, the settlement was a success. Even these despised townsmen muddled through seven years of trials and privations until they had been converted by the process into "hardy and expert colonists." The fact is that colonists have never been supplied by England ready made. Neither in the Elizabethan and Stuart days, nor in the great period of emigration which followed the cessation of the Napoleonic wars, did England colonise on these terms. Probably indeed in no period of the history of the English people have social and economic conditions combined as they do to-day to furnish a supply of the raw colonial material. Nor at any previous time has there been so good a prospect of this raw material being utilised by the application of intelligent methods. Assuming that the fund necessary to give the settlers a fair start—a fund varying from ten to twenty millions in amount—can be provided by a loan guaranteed by the Imperial Government but charged upon the revenue of the Transvaal and Orange River Colonies, the administrative machinery necessary to give effect to the proposal should be established without any unnecessary delay. In England an Emigration Board should be created to select suitable emigrants; and this Board should co-operate with commissioners in the new colonies whose business it would be to purchase suitable areas and prepare these areas by irrigation works and light railways for the settlers who are to be established upon them. At the same time a Department of Agriculture with an Irrigation Service should be formed in the new colonies; and agricultural colleges with experimental farms should be provided, in order that the new settlers may obtain information, and, where necessary, actual training.

It may be said, however, that this ten or twenty millions will after all come out of the pockets of the English taxpayer, since the Transvaal contribution to the war will be diminished to this extent. Even so, the emigration loan will stand ultimately to the credit of England. Once it is admitted that the likeliest, if not the only, method of preventing the recurrence of disaster in South Africa is to amalgamate the two races

by the introduction of an English population into the country districts, it is plain that any sum spent from whatever source upon these agricultural settlements is so much money spent in the interest of the English taxpayer. It is in fact an expenditure which might be legitimately incurred by an English Government as an insurance against future military outlay. Twenty millions is not too high a premium, when you are insuring against conflagrations that may cost you two hundred millions.

POPULATION AND PROGRESS.

OPINIONS and feelings about the growth of population have varied at different times almost as much as the growth of population itself. At one time people are alarmed lest population should increase beyond the means of subsistence. At another if a census shows a decrease in numbers, alarm is felt at the threatened decay of the nation's vitality, and the imminent danger that it will sink below the numerical standard which appears the first condition of its holding its own against rivals. At the present moment we in England are, if not exactly jubilant, at least complacent over the Census returns of 1901. During the last decennial period we have increased our population in England and Wales by three and a half millions: an increase of 12·15 per cent. in the decennial period which is a half per cent. over that of the previous decennial period. We should have been in a most melancholy frame of mind if the tendency had appeared to be downward, and it is an immense relief to know that we are free from the necessity of offering prizes for large families, or of taxing bachelors or ladies who refuse offers of marriage. Yet not so long ago, as one need not be very old to remember, there was hardly any public question that excited greater fears than that of the excessive growth of population: and the history of it goes back to the days of Malthus who ascribed to it pauperism and most of the evils from which society suffers. And it is very likely indeed that when the present era of expansion is past, and the wars have been fought for which the nations have laid their account, the problem will resume its importance. Perhaps it has really never lost it, for probably the fear of the increase of population has been the most active influence in the struggle for new territories and colonies outside the home boundaries that has taken place in recent years. The population question is a spectre which will not be laid; and when we have once more "a calm world and a long peace," it will raise its head again.

No question starts more paradoxes. The very first one we meet is the apparent conflict of public and private interests. At any rate for the present an overflowing population is considered essential for the military power and commercial prosperity of the nations, and yet every paterfamilias in any of these nations considers it more or less in the light of a misfortune to have an overflowing family. Increase of numbers makes us easy on the military side and assuages the fear of the commercial classes who want cheap labour. But it frightfully complicates all social questions, and abundant labour means low conditions of life with low intellectual, moral, and physical standards amongst the mass of the people. On the other hand we have the doctrine that as in the case of all other organisms, animal or plant, so in man it is excess of numbers that lays the groundwork for the competition to which we are to look for improved types. Without the competition we are told we shall not advance, and yet plainly with this competition there is a concomitant of degradation as the result of the process. All attempts at regulation of this welter of competition springing from excessive numbers would defeat the object of nature, which is to evolve through suffering future generations at the expense of every present one. The limited family is good for the individual but bad for the race; comfort in the present means declension in the future. It is not the least of the paradoxes that the very reason which gave rise to Socialism as a plan for regulating society for its salvation is the one which is used with most force against it. The philosophic argument against Socialism is that it is an attempt to set up an unaltering status, a

static condition of society, whereas what is always needed to save society from decay is the constant dynamic of competition. A sensible Socialist admits that the population question would be one of the cruxes of his problem. He will not go further than to say that with an immensely higher moral and intellectual level in the mass of the people the problem might be solved. As to the effect of the cessation of the economic struggle if the equilibrium of population with means of subsistence were established, he has to meet the declarations of the "struggle-for-lifers" with counter declarations which are not so familiar as those of his opponents.

We are to believe, according to the theorists who see in increasing population Nature's chief instrument for improving the race, that the competition of man with man is like the competition between other animals for mere subsistence. Then there is the associated idea that the greater the numbers the more chance there is of better specimens appearing. The analogy is very striking no doubt but differences strike us at once. Most animals and plants are the food supply of other animals. The competition for food is their life-work whilst with us most of our competitions take place on very many other planes of an intellectual and moral life. It would seem that if we could limit our population, we might still further increase the difference between animals and men by confining the competition to these higher spheres. Our fine flower of society is produced by the competition between classes who are not struggling for subsistence but in the proper human sphere. In the classes that are we do not look for the emergence of the superior form: and a population increasing by the growth of these classes is not a source of hope but of fear and despair. We should be appalled by a calamity which swept off these classes, but such a decrease in population would be an enormous advantage, if population could afterwards be scientifically regulated so that the struggle for the future should cease to be one as completely animal as the human life can be. Were men like the immature dragon-fly which, when outside pabulum is short, will eat its own kind, the case would be stronger for holding that a superfluity of humanity is good for the development of our species. The fact is that in society the competition that tells for improvement is not promoted by superfluous population. What happens is that the mass of the people is cut off from this competition, which is confined to the classes who are struggling with each other in myriads of different forms while they have their subsistence fairly well secured. The ideal population would be one in which there would be freedom from the purely animal struggle, and in which the higher objects of ambition and rivalry would be direct and sufficient incentives acting on each particular individual. It is curious that we should suppose a socialistic society as one which would be stagnant and would have no rivalries because every man's food for to-morrow, we are to suppose, would be secure. Perhaps the society might break down because the growth of population could not be managed scientifically, but if it could there is nothing in the nature of man to suggest that with a full stomach he would sit down and care for nothing else, and it is only because it is so difficult for the mass of men to secure this plenitude that we have got into the habit of assuming that it is the only object which keeps them active and moral. The superfluity of population is the great force which helps to keep competition too much in one groove instead of its being spread over the whole field of human effort. We are not expressing any opinion as to whether our own country or any other is absolutely overpopulated in the sense that there is not a possibility of comfortable subsistence for all. But there is no doubt that relatively to the whole society some classes are out of proportion to others. Mere animal increase without sufficient consideration given to economic or moral considerations has handicapped them prodigiously; and has reduced their rational competition as men with the higher classes to an animal struggle with the hordes of their own classes. They are an important element in the world at present because, *ceteris paribus*, greater numbers directed by intellect are superior for fighting purposes to less numbers even though directed by equal intellect. The horde has to be taken

into account because each nation will use it against another. But for all other purposes the horde is a disadvantage to the nation that breeds it and a misery to itself. These superfluous class growths are excrescences, not in the true organic life of the nation. Like overcrowded professions their members do not really enter into the competition at all; the very competition which counts in the improvement of the race: they are outside it. They can be got rid of sometimes and turned to account as in colonisation; but there are periods when this resource is not open. It may be we are now at the beginning of a period of difficulty in disposing thus of superfluous numbers. If the Census returns, when finally digested, show that our increase of population has been amongst these classes, we shall have no reason to congratulate ourselves. A decline in the numbers of those whose competition is not carried on at the lower level would perhaps be serious. It might mean decay of race vitality: but no one could positively speak with assurance on that point. It might mean prudence, the moral checks or otherwise of the economists, and imply that rather than fall to the lower competitive level that portion of the nation was regulating its numbers. The danger here is lest the purpose for which this is done should degenerate into an ideal of purely materialistic comfort. As we have said, we are in a region of paradoxes: to every thesis there is an antithesis. Society has not yet learned the art of compounding them. But at least it seems clear that a naïve indiscriminating satisfaction with the mere fact of an increase of population is not a rationally possible state of mind.

OXFORD IN EAST LONDON.

IT has survived obscurity; it has weathered adversity; will it resist prosperity? That was the reflection inevitably and pressingly forced on the hearer of the Bishop of London's story of the Oxford movement to the East End, which he told us on Wednesday at the annual meeting of the Oxford House. How everything is *couleur de rose*, one said! And one rather wondered why it should be necessary, or at any rate accepted as the right thing, to infuse into the proceedings on all occasions of this kind such an element of jocularity. We have for years been struck, and a little tried, with this feature of annual meetings of social and religious agencies of all sorts. It is not natural, and however well it may "go down" with certain constant elements in these audiences, it strikes a man as rather foolish. Necessarily it accentuated one's solicitude for the Oxford East London movement in the time of its wealth. One knows, or a few of us do, the history of churches. The exiguous beginnings, the little band, the contempt of the outer world, the crusading spirit—all that is a guarantee, a safeguard, it enshrines the spark of life and prevents its dissipation over wider space. It is later, when the new spirit has dominated its surroundings, when the church and the world coincide externally, that the tug comes. The expansion of this latest, and in our belief, founded on long and close acquaintance, one of the very soundest of Oxford movements is truly astonishing. Of the five Heads the Oxford House has known, the first became a Colonial Bishop, the third is a Canon of Westminster, and the fourth Bishop of London. For the present Head, it does not yet appear what he will be; but if honest hard work and untiring devotion lead to anything, he can hardly hope to escape from following in the steps of his predecessors. True, as though to redress the balance of prosperity, the second Head, he who kept the movement alive when at its lowest, is a kind of mendicant friar, a novelist Tractarian for the times. He dwells apart. The great and brilliant position of those most intimately connected with the Oxford House does unquestionably alter the perspective of the whole movement; and the change must be recognised. There is one recognition of such altered positions, a very common one, which we trust and fully believe Oxford House will escape. It is not unusual for friends to discover in an institution's growth an excuse for saving their subscriptions. These, who would call themselves friends in adversity, should remember that

expansion and outward prosperity mean extended responsibilities with necessarily increased outlay. As we have said, in our view it is the hour of expansion which is the crisis of such institutions' lives, and now is the time when all that have any beyond the most academic of interests in the Oxford House will make a special point of coming forward and helping with money and men.

If the prosperity of this Oxford movement has in it an element of peril, it has also an assurance of strength. Had the movement not been a reality, had it not actually done something, it could never have appealed to the public at all. For the Oxford House has not been an advertising society; it has never trusted to pictures and new Gospels and æsthetic arts and crafts for its inspiration; it has never given out that it would turn the world upside down. It has always been sane, a cardinal and not universal virtue in social and religious "workers." It has been the victim of no hallucinations as to the people it was trying to help or as to those it would convert into helpers. It has never supposed that the West End is populated wholly by gilded scoundrels or the East End by blackened angels. Thus it has never lent itself to sensational appeals; and for that reason it has never been found out, or rather it has been found out and has been proved true.

The work of these Oxford men has undoubtedly been twice blessed; devotees of self-sacrifice might even wish it blessed the worker rather less than it does. The Oxford House man is not a prig, priest, or puritan; the three bugbears which your mere man of the world seems to regard as the necessary outcome of trying to do some good. Naturally, a year's life amongst the poor is a useful training for the Priesthood, so that many intending to take Orders go to the House. But it would be a total mistake to suppose that the life and work there tend to develop a morbidly ecclesiastical type. If it had done nothing else, this House would have justified its existence by having shown many, who will have much to do with numbers of working-men's lives in later years, what a working-man in the concrete is. They learn amongst other things that it is not necessary always to address a working-man or woman in high-pitched tones of excessive hilarity. If the poor are childlike—and they are—they certainly do not lack the child's gift of gauging a "grown-up." Since he sees no cause for extreme hilarity in his interlocutor and still less in himself, the working-man resents this tone and (not unwisely) puts his patron down for a fool.

Perhaps the greatest cause of this movement's stability is that it definitely takes its character from historic Christianity. It is all very well to preach the "service of man," but if daily contact and closer knowledge steadily diminish respect for that animal, such "service" can hardly be enthusiastic. It is far otherwise, and the motive is perennial, when what is done is done in the name of One irresistibly fascinating as Man and supreme as God.

A SCHEME OF ARMY REFORM.

III.—CONSCRIPTION AS APPLIED TO GREAT BRITAIN.

THE scheme of reform developed in these articles may be summarised thus. We assume first of all a peace establishment of 356,000 for the regular army. At present this is fixed at 276,000, though in 1899-1900 there was a deficit of some 18,000 men. But even assuming that the present ideal is on all occasions reached, this scheme requires an increase of 80,000 men. These are to be obtained by introducing conscription and adding 67 battalions to the infantry—or rather converting into regulars a number of Militia battalions, which together with Volunteers and Yeomanry would as such be abolished—and by raising five new cavalry regiments and twenty-one additional batteries of artillery, with their appropriate complement of army service corps and other details. The professional or voluntary system is still retained, and is arranged to run concurrently with national conscription. In other words the latter is only resorted to where the former has failed. In order to make soldiering more of a profession than it is

at present, the voluntary period of service is raised to twelve years with the colours, and seven in the Reserve. On the basis of former years, it may be assumed that voluntary recruiting will annually produce some 35,000 men. But as at least 115,000 are required in the changed circumstances, the balance of 80,000 must be obtained by conscription. Conscripts, however, except in case of war, are not required to serve abroad. The first six months of their service is performed at the depôts; and thus, at any rate as regards the infantry, near their own homes. Twenty is the age at which they are taken, and on 1 January those who have been chosen by ballot out of the whole number that reach the age of twenty during the year—which would usually far exceed the total of conscripts required—commence their term of military service. Eighteen months with the colours, five years both in the regimental and first army reserves, and five in the second army reserve make up the complete term of service. Obviously the second reserve would only be called upon in extreme cases; and thus the conscript is virtually a free man on attaining his thirty-second year. The number of exemptions and postponements is considerable. Candidates for orders in the English, Irish, Roman Catholic and Presbyterian Churches, and all those belonging to the seafaring profession, are exempt altogether from military service. The cases of those awaiting trial or undergoing sentence for petty offences, and of those temporarily unfit or too small to serve are postponed for consideration to the following year. There are, too, some exemptions for family reasons. These include the only sons of destitute widows, or of those whose parents are incapacitated from managing their own affairs, and the sole surviving brothers of soldiers who have died on service. This body of men—together with those exempted by ballot—are, nevertheless, under the designation of the Civil Reserve, kept on the register, and for a space of ten years are liable for service, though by no means necessarily of a combatant nature. There is no class exemption.

Coming to details, the introduction of conscription into this country, necessarily revolutionising our military system, would require an elaborate Act. It need not, however, affect the arrangement by which our army is provided for year by year; so that the Army Act could still be kept in force by the annual Act. To understand this scheme it is necessary to appreciate the nature and composition of an army corps. Our army corps establishment differs from that of any other Power. In most of the Continental army corps the strength of an infantry brigade is six battalions, but in ours it is four. A division, therefore—which contains two brigades—on the Continental plan consists of twelve battalions and in ours of eight. Similarly the Continental army corps consists of two divisions or twenty-four battalions as against three divisions of an equal number of battalions in ours. We also allow for an additional battalion among the corps troops. Our organisation of these corps troops—or troops not grouped with the several divisions—appears to be unnecessarily clumsy, and in the German army they have practically been abolished. In the field the corps troops really are nobody's children, and in practice it has rarely been found possible to use them as corps troops. On the other hand, when they are grouped with the several divisions, the corps commander in the field has the advantage of knowing with which column they are marching, which, when they are corps troops, is not always possible. The matter, however, is now complicated by the existence of howitzer, and, possibly, in the future, of heavy batteries. In their case it would seem that there is no alternative but to make them corps troops, since they could hardly be grouped with the infantry divisions. For present purposes, then, we propose to alter our army corps organisation, to have only two infantry divisions with all the horse and field artillery grouped between them, and to estimate the number of batteries for an army corps as two of horse and eighteen of field. It would be an advantage to each division to possess one horse or highly mobile battery. To each corps we would also apportion a cavalry brigade, and then of corps combatant troops we should only have the howitzer and possibly the heavy batteries, and some engineers, the corps battalion

being abolished. In these circumstances our army corps would be composed of twenty-four battalions or two divisions, with all the horse and field batteries distributed between them; a cavalry brigade—three regiments and one horse battery—and the corps troops already mentioned. This would have the advantage of reducing the number of generals and staff—of whom at present our organisation allows of too large a number—and, if we are to keep army corps organised in peacetime, would result in a considerable saving of expense. Some authorities maintain that the army corps organisation is not suited to our wants; and of most of our campaigns this is certainly true. But in a large army it is absolutely necessary that divisions should be grouped together, and thus it would save confusion in war-time if the staffs of these groups were organised in peacetime, and were not collected together in the haphazard fashion now in vogue. If six army corps then are necessary at home, we should require 144 battalions of infantry, 18 regiments of cavalry, and 120 batteries of horse and field, besides howitzers and heavy batteries as adjuncts, as well as various engineer and army service, ordnance and medical corps details.

In this scheme there would of course be no place for any auxiliaries, Militia, Yeomanry and Volunteers being abolished. For service in India 52 battalions are needed, and before the war began we required for the colonies 30 battalions. Of these there were formerly in South Africa six, two cavalry regiments and three field batteries. Mr. Brodrick has recently said that in South Africa a permanent garrison of twelve battalions will be required. But it will be some considerable time before so small a force will suffice, and we may safely assume that a garrison of twenty-four battalions, six cavalry regiments and twenty batteries will be the complement for some time needed. According to this calculation South Africa would demand in addition to its former garrison eighteen battalions, four cavalry regiments and fifteen field and two horse batteries. This would bring our colonial infantry garrisons up to 48 battalions. But Mr. Brodrick also says that five coaling stations may be handed over to the Admiralty, which would of course necessitate an increase of the personnel of the Navy, but that according to Lord Selborne's recent statement in the House of Lords seems to be thought hardly feasible. It is also proposed to raise eight new garrison battalions and five more in India. Assuming—though the prospect at present is far from hopeful—that he will in time be able to raise six garrison battalions, and hand over five colonial stations to the new Indian battalions and four to the Admiralty, this would reduce our colonial garrison to 33, which, with the 52 battalions in India, would bring the total of battalions for foreign service to 85. Altogether we possess at present 168 regular battalions—although Mr. Brodrick, presumably with the intention of disbanding two new battalions, recently placed it at 166—so we should consequently have left 83 battalions. But proposing to keep in England six army corps or 144 battalions, we should in that case be short of 61 battalions. These might be formed by raising the Irish Guards to three battalions, and by adding a third of regulars to the 59 regiments which at present do not possess them. It would, however, be desirable that the staff and garrison in London—as in the somewhat similar case of Paris—were extra to the army corps organisation. In that case we propose to allow for six more battalions still, which might be raised by adding fourth battalions to six regiments recruited in populous districts.

Of cavalry we have at present in our army thirty-one British regiments, twelve of which are ordinarily required for foreign service. But the addition of four regiments to the South African roster leaves but fifteen at home; of whom the three regiments of household cavalry are for mobilisation purposes only computed to furnish one composite regiment, which further reduces the number to thirteen. By adding five regiments to our cavalry, we should then possess eighteen which would supply us with the six cavalry brigades we require. On the Continental plan, we might strengthen our regiments by an additional squadron, and make a cavalry brigade consist of only two regiments and a horse battery. But on the whole it

is better to keep to our existing organisation, which is more elastic and more readily admits of expansion than the Continental plan. Then in the field one of the three regiments of the brigade would probably be detached as divisional cavalry, which would again reduce the brigade to two regiments. Great stress is now laid on our possessing an ample supply of mounted infantry, into which, by the inducement of extravagantly high pay, the Yeomanry are to be turned. We would meet this want by giving every infantry battalion a permanent establishment of thirty horses, so as to enable them to turn out a mounted infantry section if needed, and also make it possible for every long-service soldier—the conscripts would hardly have time for such a course—to pass through an elementary riding class. Had such a system been inaugurated five years ago, many of our present difficulties could not have arisen.

In the matter of artillery we possess at present 28 horse and 151 field and howitzer batteries: but of these, four of horse and 46 of field are ordinarily required for service abroad. To these we must add two horse and 15 field batteries for service in South Africa, which leaves at home but 15 horse and 90 field. According to the present scheme we should require 12 horse batteries for the corps troops of the six corps, and six in addition for the cavalry brigades; 18 in all, that is three more than we possess at present. Similarly we should require 108 field batteries, or 18 more than we have now. These additions would be required to complete the army corps.

Conscription as applied to this country has special difficulties. Unlike the Continental nations who have been led to adopt it, we have to provide for large Indian and Colonial garrisons. Moreover on the Continent units are quartered permanently in their own territorial districts, and soldiers are thus serving close to their homes. As a consequence mobilisation is with them an easy matter, stores can be kept on the spot, and the order to mobilise creates little difficulty. The reservists are collected then and there, and equipped in the districts to which they belong. They are thus able to join their units at once. But in our case such simplicity is not possible. Our regiments cannot remain always in one district, nor carry about with them their own reserve stores. As a matter of practice they rarely remain more than two years in one place, and from time to time have to proceed abroad or to Ireland. Therefore with us the depôts are the most convenient mobilisation centres. With such an arrangement the present scheme does not in any way interfere; and conscripts would have to serve in various parts of the United Kingdom. But the stations of home units might be changed less frequently. It is a matter of tradition in our army that regiments change their quarters about once in every two years; and the expense is correspondingly heavy alike to the units and the taxpayer. It especially affects married men and their families both in the commissioned and non-commissioned ranks. In existing circumstances little can be done in the matter of concentrating troops, except at such centres as Aldershot and Salisbury. We could hardly condemn a large number of sound barracks, and ask the taxpayer to provide new ones in more desirable districts. Ground, too, is an almost insuperable difficulty, and there are few spots in the United Kingdom where a concentration of troops would be desirable, or even useful for purposes of instruction.

FROM HEINE.

"Im Walde."

I STRAY and sob in the forest.
The throstle sits on the bough.
She springs and sings her purest.—
"What ails thee, sad of brow?"

Thy sisters dear, the swallows,
Can rede thee true my child,
Who chose the lattice-hollows
Where erst my darling smiled.

W. SICHEL.

S. MARY THE VIRGIN, OXFORD.

I.

MANY stirring memories gather round the great historic church of S. Mary the Virgin at Oxford; and its close connexion with academic life, maintained during several centuries, gives to it a unique and abiding interest. Standing almost in the centre of the ancient city, and bordering on the street which has always been the main thoroughfare from west to east, it has from the earliest times played a conspicuous part in the scenes of Oxford history. The now existing nave indeed was not completed till the beginning of the sixteenth century, and the chancel was rebuilt by Walter Lyhart, Bishop of Norwich, about the year 1462 to show his regard for Oriel College, the society of which he had been Provost. But a church dedicated to the Blessed Virgin had occupied the same site from Saxon times; and when the bounds of the parish are beaten each year on Ascension Day its limits are found to comprise portions of no fewer than six colleges, besides the Schools quadrangle and part of Duke Humphrey's Library, half of the Clarendon building and the whole of the Radcliffe Square. The ancient parish was invaded by these later settlers; the colleges and libraries clustered round the central edifice of S. Mary the Virgin, acquiring and occupying ground formerly occupied by the parochial tenements which were crowded together in narrow lanes, the chief of which was Cat Street (*vicus murilegorum*) with a "Kitten" Court opening from it.

As S. Martin's, Carfax, was the church of the citizens, so S. Mary's was the church of the University. But it has always been far more than this. It served for centuries as the home of the University. It was the scene of its secular business as well as its religious worship. The earliest student life of Oxford seems to have been connected with the religious houses which were planted on the banks of the Isis, such as S. Frideswide's nunnery, founded in the eighth century, and Oseney Abbey, founded by Robert D'Oilly in the reign of Henry I. And as the various schools, or groups of scholars, grew in number, and instruction became systematised and teachers were licensed, there was gradually created a University of Oxford, analogous to the Universities of Paris and other Continental cities; the students being mostly lodged in hostels, or halls, antecedent to the establishment of the earliest colleges. And the University, having no buildings of its own, made use of the central church of S. Mary the Virgin, as its home for all its common purposes. There was no incongruity in this, for those purposes were all, in a way, religious. The elementary studies of the Trivium (grammar, rhetoric, and logic) as well as the more advanced studies of the Quadrivium (arithmetic, geometry, music, and astronomy)—a series summed up in the mnemonic line

"Lingua, tropus, ratio, numerus, tonus, angulus, astra—"

formed the basis of the general training of the Arts course; these were all regarded as a preparation for the higher faculties, and especially for the supreme study of the *mater scientiarum*, theology. Thus for instance grammar and the Greek and Hebrew languages were taught that the Holy Scriptures might be easily read and accurately transcribed; rhetoric and logic, that the Fathers of the Church might be understood, and false doctrine refuted; music, that the services might be rightly rendered. There was nothing strange then in associating all the business and work of the University with a consecrated building; and by the thirteenth century S. Mary's had become the central home of academical activity in its many phases. In 1274 the Chancellor and Masters proposed to found within its walls a chantry where masses might be said for the King and other benefactors. The very earliest structure which may in a strict sense be termed an academical building dates from Edward II.'s reign; and it still stands, nestling close against the north wall of S. Mary's chancel, and apparently a part of the church, though indeed it can boast a far higher antiquity than any portion of the existing fabric, except the tower and spire. The ancient House of Congregation, for that is the proper title of this singularly

interesting building, was the first meeting-place of the Congregation of the regent masters; and, in the words of Sir H. Maxwell Lyte, "it has survived the changes of more than five centuries, and there are few spots in Oxford which have more venerable associations than that low-vaulted chamber in which successive mediæval chancellors granted to kneeling candidates the license to teach as masters in the schools of the University." It was itself a chapel as well as a hall for business, and the piscina at the east end of its southern wall still indicates the position of the altar at which masses were celebrated. Above this chamber, in the same fourteenth century, was raised an upper story, wherein were placed the books belonging to the University, each volume chained, for the sake of security, above or upon the desks which were arranged between the seven narrow lancet windows with which the north and south walls were pierced. The librarian was a priest, and one of his duties was to say masses at the adjacent altar of S. Catharine. In this upper room the books remained till 1480, when they were transferred to Duke Humphrey's new library over the Divinity School. The chamber was then appropriated to the purposes of congregation, and was so used, together with the room below it, until the completion of the new Convocation House in 1638.

But not only in these stately and venerable rooms did the University make a home. The whole church, without losing its parochial character, or forfeiting its close connexion with Oriel College, which dated back to the very beginning of that royal foundation, was used for academical purposes, and its history is intimately bound up with the annals of the University. Its great bell still summons the doctors and masters to vote or debate on academical legislation, or to confer degrees: and from the earliest times till 1638 their debates and all their business were transacted within the precincts of S. Mary's. Indeed such business was occasionally transacted there in subsequent years, whenever Parliament met in Oxford and claimed the use of the convocation house and the schools. Thus in 1665 and again in 1681 the chancel of S. Mary's was used for the conferring of degrees and other ceremonies.

It served also for more than two centuries as the examination schools of the University. All the exercises which qualified for degrees were performed within it; and the phrase, so familiar to Oxford men, *Responsiones in Parviso*, refer to the questions and answers which were given in the porch of S. Mary's, or rather in the chamber above the ancient porch, which can now be traced only in the narrow stone newel staircase which led up to it, and may still be seen, worn with the tread of successive generations of undergraduates. In the church also were performed the various ceremonies connected with the conferring of degrees: and at the end of each academical year, the Act, or public recognition and bestowal of the degrees gained during the year, and public commemoration of founders and benefactors, took place in the nave. For this important ceremony great preparations were made. The nave was fitted up with staging and tiers of seats, so as to accommodate the members of the University in accordance with their several ranks. It was turned in fact from a church into a theatre, and its walls rang with applause or laughter, at the meritorious declamation of prize exercises, or the scurrilous buffoonery of the *terræ filius*. This misuse of the church continued till after the Restoration. John Fell, who was Dean of Christ Church, and the most prominent and stirring among the academicians of his day, in order to get rid of so secular a use of a consecrated building, encouraged Archbishop Sheldon to build the theatre which now bears his name, and in 1669 the ceremonies of the Act were for the first time transacted there, instead of in S. Mary's.

Within S. Mary's too—probably in the north or Lady Chapel, which is still used as the consistory court of the diocese—the Chancellor in person, or represented by his commissary, held his weekly court. Before this tribunal were brought almost all cases in which scholars or any who possessed the privilege of clergy were concerned. The jurisdiction was very wide, and touched all manner of concerns relating to the well-being of the University:—the quality and price of bread, wine, beer,

and other provisions; the rents of houses let to clerks; the cleansing and repair of the streets. All such matters came before this court, as well as affairs of police, and many a brawling scholar or mischievous woman was committed to the prison at Bocardo from the Lady Chapel of S. Mary's. We read even of heads of houses convicted of grave offences and punished accordingly. On the completion of the new Convocation House, this court was transferred to its present quarters in the Apodyterium.

Thus before the close of the seventeenth century, the purely secular uses of S. Mary's had ceased. The University had by this time its own hall for business, its own library, its own examination schools, its own Chancellor's Court. But the great bell still summons the doctors and masters together within its walls, though not for business but worship; and at the Latin Litany and Holy Communion which mark the beginning of each academic term, as well as at the Sunday sermons, the formal and official attendance of the University authorities perpetuates the ancient connexion with S. Mary's Church, which has endured through so many centuries.

In another article I will try to notice briefly some of the more remarkable incidents which have occurred within its walls.

H. L. THOMPSON.

THREE PLAYS.

ART, competing with life as an attraction, ought not to give its adversary the least advantage in the game. When, for instance, we have been lured from the sunshine of a real afternoon into a theatre, a very long entr'acte is apt to be dangerous. Even though the spell of illusion be not utterly broken by the interval, we, sampling the sunshine at leisure, wonder how the dim footlights could have made truants of us. Wondering, we are apt not to return to our seats. Last Monday, at the Garrick Theatre, the Stage Society appointed a gap of twenty-five minutes between the second and third acts of "The Pillars of Society." I regard that as a bit of sheer bravado. After preening oneself in the gold haze of spring, to be expected to dip back into a dim sarcophagus upholstered in velvet and filled with a crowd of intelligent people! Sickening is the idea of the velvet. Even more so, the idea of the intelligent crowd. A crowd of stupid people is all very well: one is used to it. But an obviously and feverishly intelligent crowd is an unnatural, an intolerable nuisance, from which Heaven defend me! I ask, does any man, in these circumstances, return to his seat and see the play through? I answer this rhetorical question by recording that I did. But I regard the fact of my return as a very signal tribute to Ibsen's genius for dramaturgy and to his inalienable power of filling us at the moment with a kind of intellectual excitement for which, analysing it later, we may or may not discover adequate cause.

"The Pillars of Society," the earliest play of his final period, is interesting rather as a story than as a philosophic reflection of life. Ibsen here is, first and foremost, the rattling good playwright. Why this strong, ingenious, rattling good play of his has never been produced by a commercial manager, is a mystery that I cannot fathom. Thought, of course (with propagandism) comes into the play; but it is wholly subordinate to the conceived story. Hatred of idealism and respectability, hatred of Man and love of Woman, and all the rest of Ibsen's "fads," may be found in it, but never for one moment do they make or mar the story itself. Thus they would not incommode the public. As an attack on social institutions the play is quite negligible. It ought to have been called, not "The Pillars of Society," but "The Skeleton in the Cupboard." Consul Bernick is essentially the man with a guilty secret and a predisposition to villainy. Ibsen, by presenting him as an average type of the class that he wished (incidentally) to attack, made nonsense of his incidental motive. But this matters little. The man is projected with great vitality, and is (except as the pretended type) a very impressive figure. Nor is it so much on what he is as on what happens that the excitement of the play depends. Will the noble young man who became his scapegoat un-

mask him now in all his hideousness to the world? Will his attempt to murder this young man be crowned with success? Will his little boy, whom he dearly loves, be drowned? Oh no, no! Do not harrow us too much! Let there be a happy ending! And there is. The young man is saved; so is the little boy; and the wicked man (this is the one impossible thing that Ibsen makes him do) atones for his sins by confessing them to his fellow-citizens, and so inaugurates his perfect reformation. Superior persons may sneer at the play (especially its last act) as melodrama; but it is melodrama of the very best kind. It is a hustle of ingenious and exciting chances around strongly and truly delineated characters, and the comic relief (of which there is much) is real straightforward fun. The public would take to it like a duck to the water. Perhaps Mr. Asche, who produced it for the Stage Society, and played very powerfully the part of Bernick, will one day give the public this chance. The whole performance last Monday was very good all round, the cast including Miss Annie Webster, Mr. Albert Gran and many other very capable persons. The only important fault to be found was that all the men were much too smartly dressed. Mr. Charles Quartermain, as Rörund the schoolmaster, was the one exception. He wore a frock-suit of rusty black, with a small black bow topping a long expanse of shirt-front. That, I am sure, is how Ibsen means all his men to be dressed. It is a uniform, to be worn unquestioningly by his interpreters.

There are two farces to which I ought to have called your attention last week: "The Night of the Party" at the Avenue, and "A Woman in the Case" at the Court. There is not much to choose between them as farces; but, if one must be taken and the other left, I think the former should be taken. For in it Mr. Weedon Grossmith, its author, has a very good part, which he plays to admiration; whereas in the other Mr. George R. Sims and Mr. Leonard Merrick have not given a chance to any of the many popular mimes engaged. It is quite worth your while to see Mr. Grossmith's study of the eternal lackey-type. There is one moment at which, in his dual responsibility, he achieves greatness. This is when he is standing at the window, with his back turned to us, watching his master get into a hansom *en route* for Euston. He is muttering a good riddance, unpacking his heart of long-pent disrespect and rebellion. Suddenly his shoulders droop, his neck takes an exquisite inclination, he smiles (we know it by the curve of his cheek), and "Good-bye, Sir, good-bye!" he murmurs. His master's glance up at the window has renewed the broken spell, changing not merely the man's physical aspect, but bringing to his nervous lips what he knows to be beyond ear-shot. The whole thing takes place in a moment (would it could be described in one!), but it is a moment of such poignant truth that it would redeem a play that had no other virtue. So long as Mr. Grossmith is on the stage his play seems full of virtues. The rest of the cast is negligible. It has been recruited I know not whence. But that none of it shows particular talent is rather a blessing. For if such talent were shown we could only regret that it was wasted. It is, as I have suggested, the prodigal waste of talent that prevents one from bearing with equanimity the farce at the Court. Here is not a single part that has anything in it. Here are merely the stock dummies for "complications." Played by mimes who know no better they would pass muster. But we resent them as played by mimes who do know infinitely better. Mr. Kerr and Miss Kingston play the two central parts, and at every moment we are jarred. We hear the spades of their intelligence grating against that stony surface which is all that the authors have allotted for them to dig. These two comedians should accept the situation frankly, saying to themselves "We are here to play the fool. Let us play it, and not attempt any other part." Miss Esmé Beringer is wiser than they in this respect. She does not remind us (even though she may not make us forget) that she is thrown away. Cast for a dummy-part, she plays it as stagily and emptily as she can. Mr. W. H. Denny, too, manages to be more unlike a German Baron, and more in accord with the authors' intention, than I should have conceived possible. To hear him "agzebt ze egsblanation" and so

forth, is a lesson in the proper method for such a part. But it is a lesson which any duffer could have taught us equally well. Mr. James Erskine, too, impersonating an Officer and a Gentleman, contrives, by dint of twirling his moustache as though he were working a machine, and of talking as though he had a bunch of grapes in his mouth, to be quite unlike any Officer or Gentleman seen by him off the stage, and so to keep well within the stage-convention. But one regrets that he is not in a play where he could use in the interest of art the advantages he has had as a private person. As for Miss Carlotta Addison, her case is even worse. She does not even do what is required of her. Playing the inevitable dowager who tries to bully her daughter into a loveless union, she lavishes on the part all those sweet, tender, translucent qualities of womanliness for which the dramatic critics have been praising her for so many years that now she cannot, for the life of her, suggest any qualities inferior. Another misfit is Mr. C. W. Herz as an Eton boy. If Eton kept her pupils till they had reached the age of thirty (which is, roughly, the age suggested by Mr. Herz's appearance) Mr. Herz as an Eton boy might be all very well. But as this reform in the rules of the school is not likely to be made before Mr. Herz reaches the age of Methuselah, I urge Mr. Herz to discard the ambition of appearing as an Eton boy, even though (as in "Peril," and in this play) the dramatic critics seem to think him satisfactory.

MAX.

THE ACADEMY.—II.

THE RAPE OF PAINTING.

I HAVE a friend who tells, with tears in his eyes, the story of a man who died of starvation with hundreds of eggs within reach of his hand. I never quite understood why there were so many eggs and nothing else, but the point was that he had always disliked eggs, and refused to be less fastidious because his life was the price of his taste. No one will starve because he cannot stomach pictures at an Academy, but those who have no appetite for Mr. Sargent's painting are likely to go without their dinner. I have seen indeed poor wretches, who refused to touch the *plat du jour*, pecking at a Sant, bolting a Cooper, trifling with a Leslie or a Poynter, astonishing the waiters by attacking certain ancient dry fruits and biscuits that garnish the tables, but it was an unsatisfactory meal.

There are good reasons for quarrelling with Mr. Sargent, but some of his critics have really a bigger quarrel, namely with modern painting generally. The peculiar interest and excitement of modern painting has been the exploring of natural light and colour, and to this interest such critics are constitutionally rather indifferent. As I write I see from my window a tower of chestnut, the topmost of whose thousand candles are still lit. Between these lit candles, the rosy grey behind them and the nameless greens of the pit of shadow in which the rest are extinguished, balances an uninventable harmony, changing in all its constituents every few minutes. Of such harmonies modern painting is the instrument; these speak to the modern eye and the modern heart. The sense developed in landscape has passed into portrait, the passion of these harmonies, search for the law of the surfaces that take these lights and modify them and so build up the visible world, have wrecked or made the talents of modern painting. The strong talents are swept into this stream of exploration, or resisting, wither. It may seem abstractly possible to choose one's date in painting, to go back up the stream and camp where its volume is narrower and less burdened. In practice the current is too strong and takes the heart out of reaction.

The critic objects: This pursuit of real colour and tone is the pursuit of actuality, of accidents that have no importance for the imagination. This conception of the imagination as a faculty diminished by each extension of the visible has doubtless reappeared at each stage of that extension. When Giotto, Masaccio, Donatello gave bone and body to men, when Piero della Francesca took to perspective like a new poetry, critics must have shaken the head over the departure of imagination and the intrusion of trivial reality. They were wrong. Each of these new explorations

meant for the artists a new flight for the imagination, a fresh excitement about the image, by no means destructive of the old; the tree that comes to us not only with its shape and its shadows but also in the magic of coloured light will mean "tree" to the spirit more thrillingly. The heretics, the wreckers of paint, the plodders, the madmen are all infected as well as the strong talents, but they do not disprove the faith. Every degree of art shares the impulse. Mr. Whistler, so fastidious in his choice of matter, so circumspect about paint and its rights and tradition, is yet almost a pedant in the science of tone-and-colour vision, and an explorer whose trophies are the absolutely novel nocturnes. Mr. Tadema, however little we may sympathise with the intellectual proportions of his art, yet shares the passion among his marbles and little dolls. The youths who have starved on the hill of Montmartre in devotion to some absurd motley of vermilion and emerald green as a receipt for sunlight were lunatics of the faith. All that is living at the Academy, all the half successes, respectable efforts, tend this way. Mr. Hook capturing the tone of a shadowed beach against the high blues and greens of sea and sky, Mr. Mark Fisher netting the sunbeams down by his pond, Mr. Clausen hatching at the dusty lights in a barn, Mr. Stott decoying the shimmer over a shaky, dotty world, Mr. Tuke catching some radiance in a wonderfully silly composition, Mr. J. J. Shannon, slipping away from the professional compromise of his portraits for an hour in the sunshine, Mr. David Murray cherishing, in the middle of a brown professional landscape, two wonderful spots of sunny willow and cloud, these are the men who make one pause for a moment in going round the walls.

The painters who can stand up strong under the full burden of science are certainly few. How does Mr. Sargent stand? Does he lose himself in accidental insignificant lights when he has to paint a character, and is he a paint-wrecker? I do not think the portraits of the Miss Wertheimers and of Mrs. Charles Russell will bear out the first charge. Miss Wertheimer's white satin flashes its brightest, but never threatens to eclipse the head, indeed it reinforces the character. I should say that rarely in the history of painting have its engines discharged a portrait so emphatically so undistractedly contrived. The woman is there, with a vitality hardly matched since Rubens, the race, the social type, the person. And design, which only comes to Mr. Sargent when he is excited by the batteries or entranced by the strangeness of light, has come in not to crib contradict or excuse the two figures, but to push conviction further, a design discovered in the material, the sway of one figure to the other, and the run of light along the turned out arm and downstroke of the fan. Turn to the other portrait, and observe how these two pictures are designed, and designed for the imagination, in three dimensions. Not merely are they the only pictures on the walls that give the third dimension, so that soft shady space seems to open back from their frames among canvases merely mottled with flat dark and light, but this third dimension is used dramatically, to express character. In the picture just spoken of the figures come forward, almost romping, to take the full insolence of the light. The other is all retreat, with the measure of it given in the lights on the dress, lamp and wrist. If it is not work of imagination thus to catch character and picture together, in the graceful design of wreathed arms and retired head, in the lighted rose and silver that throw the shadowy flesh into strange umbers, making it fascinating to the eye—then the word imagination is robbed of a very wonderful act.

But Mr. Sargent is a paint-wrecker? Certainly he is very unkind to his paint on a near view; the examination of his means excites wonder rather than sensuous pleasure. Beautiful paint can hardly be arrived at except by systematic preparation and deliberate waiting for a surface to take the new touches. Mr. Sargent is too impatient for this, or sees no way of humouring his paint and at the same time catching the exact relation between tones he is fighting for. Down into the shadow the solid patch is imperiously driven, and a corrective of the light torn across the tacky underpainting. All he seems to care for or see his way

to getting is the illusion of beautiful paint at his chosen distance. Every painter sacrifices something: he makes this enormous sacrifice to the vivacity the consistency the beauty of his image at the picture-distance. I think I suffer as much as most to see paint brutalised, but when the picture does come into being where it was designed to come and renders there the vision, I cannot comfortably rule the painter out. These questions when logically discussed must not be too sharply stated. I can put my feeling better in a figure. The Art of Painting has become an exacting mistress, sulking in her temple. Round about it is a crowd of wooers who make all manner of worshipful approaches to her, arraying themselves in delicate or flashy costumes, serenading her with all the approved ditties, promising gentle service. But the shutters remain blind and deaf to the troubadours, and they fall to discussing among themselves theories of how proud ladies should be courted. And then appears Mr. Sargent. He has not the airs of a troubadour, hardly decent politeness. He strides through the throng and with neither song nor supplication marches into the bower, picks up the lady as a Roman did a Sabine and carries her off without apology, caress or hint of the lover. The others are loud in their protests that this is not the way in which it should be done. Poor thing, they say, how rudely he grasps and flutters her and how she struggles! But they cannot deny that she has been carried off nor pretend that she is altogether unhappy. They would not do it if they could, but they wish they could.

Note, let me say finally, the advance in solidity of modelling of the shoulders and arms in the Wertheimer portrait compared with the rude simplification of the "Carmencita." How capricious Mr. Sargent's power is, how it depends on certain material and excitement to come to heat, other portraits this year bear witness.

D. S. M.

THE OPERA AGAIN.

MR. MESSENGER has arrived at Covent Garden; and the Great Lie has appeared in the Paris "Gaulois." Mr. Messenger and his works shall be dealt with later; now I shall deal with the Great Lie. Here it is:—

"C'est lundi que s'ouvre, avec 'Roméo et Juliette,' l'opéra-saison" de Londres. On dit merveille des transformations que M. Messenger a fait subir au Covent Garden. Les travaux ont coûté près d'un million de francs, mais le vieux théâtre est rajeuni, méconnaissable, et nos artistes français apprendront avec plaisir qu'ils trouveront à l'Opéra de Londres des loges aérées et spacieuses, au lieu des affreux réduits d'antan."

This highly pleases me. All these changes, which the Syndicate has wished to make for years, which Mr. Neilson has clamoured for ever since his appointment, for which Mr. Sachs is mainly responsible, were (I believe) thought out and commenced before Mr. Messenger was thought of in connexion with our only substitute for a national English Opera. Nevertheless it is quite easy to believe (on the authority of the "Gaulois") that Mr. Messenger initiated and effected all of them. Mr. Messenger may have been director of some other of the great Continental opera-houses; but if he has occupied such a position I have never heard of it. Nevertheless, he has evidently had so vast an experience that he has been able to tell our Grand Opera Syndicate what to do before, in a manner of speaking, they knew of his existence. The "Gaulois" knows all about it. "Les travaux," which cost the Syndicate £25,000, cost, according to the "Gaulois," £40,000. The present theatre, which to the Syndicate's eyes and to the eyes of most of the hardened regular attenders of the old theatre looks very like the old one, seems to the "Gaulois" gentleman rejuvenated and unrecognisable. The new boxes, which to all our eyes appear precisely like the old ones, are to the "Gaulois" gentleman very paradises substituted for the frightful garrets of former years. Between ourselves, reader, I fancy some enemy of Mr. Messenger on the "Gaulois" staff has played Mr. Messenger this scurvy trick—a trick that is bound to make Mr. Messenger appear ridiculous

in the eyes of everyone who knows the facts. For, as I have said, the changes in the stage arrangements—really important changes—were determined long before Mr. Messenger was engaged. The changes in the stalls of the theatre were probably determined on at the same time; and, anyhow, they amount only to this, that what was formerly a dangerous theatre has become, to the occupants of the stalls at any rate, nothing else than a death-trap. Formerly the exits were difficult enough to those who did not understand them; but now descending staircases have been substituted for the old ascending ones, and in a panic it would require a mere half-minute to fill them with struggling heaps of maimed and half-suffocated people in evening dress. For this new arrangement, it so happens, I am given to understand the County Council is responsible; and it is evidently unfair to impute the blame of it to Mr. Messenger. In fact all I can attribute to Mr. Messenger are the alterations in the boxes. These, however, have not yet been effected. So much for the Great Lie of the "Gaulois." I do not desire to associate Mr. Messenger with it; for, although no Englishman can approve of a Frenchman controlling English opera, no Englishman will wish to deprive the Frenchman, once here, of his fair opportunity of showing what he can do and how he can do it. It would seem that Mr. Messenger has some friends whose pens should be controlled—that is all.

The season opened in its customary fashion this week with a dull performance of "Romeo and Juliet." On Tuesday we had "Hansel and Gretel," and on Wednesday "Tannhäuser." "Rigoletto" I did not hear, and "Faust" (if I hear it) must wait until next week. For to-night "Tristan" is promised. I do not propose until later in the season to discuss the new stage arrangements. Whether they are good or bad—and they seem to me good—they obviously require some practice on the part of the scene-shifters and machine-men before they can be expected to do all that is expected of them. It would be ridiculous, for instance, to condemn them simply because on Monday a cloth refused obstinately either to go up or down and the stage manager ultimately was reduced to dropping another cloth in front of it to hide its antics. Neither can anything atrociously severe be said about the drop-curtain which on Wednesday descended with some emphasis and amputated the right wing of one of Mr. Humperdinck's angels (in "Hansel and Gretel"). In a week or two everything will doubtless be working quite smoothly and we shall see no more of such ludicrous accidents. But even so early in the season as now, it is quite just to offer a few criticisms. Let me ask, then, why nearly every scene in "Hansel and Gretel" and in "Tannhäuser" should be so set as to look well only from the middle of the stalls? I, placed, for my sins, and, I presume, my convenience, at the right end of the front row of stalls, could see horrible gaps at each side of the back-cloths and also could see gentlemen on high manipulating limelights and other uncouth pieces of apparatus. Unless all the end seats are reserved for Gentlemen of the Press, there must be many people who have seen more than they paid for, and more than they wished to see. It is a very good rule in life to get your pennyworth of everything, but when in a theatre you get more than that, and the little excess destroys all the illusion of the game, surely you have as good a ground of complaint as you would have if you had got nothing at all. Amongst the things one would rather not see was a display of shadowgraphy in the last act of "Hansel and Gretel." Against the red side of the witch's oven could be seen the features, yea, and the moustache, of the gentleman who was working the fire effects inside. These matters should be looked into. For the rest, the orchestra this week has been excellent, Messrs. Lohse and Mancinelli each conducting competently in his own way. On Monday night Mr. Saléza, a quite commonplace tenor, undistinguishable from the mass of operatic tenors, sang the part of Romeo; and Madame Eames, who has again come out to the open from her retirement, made a very self-conscious and, one might say, music-hally Juliet. On Tuesday Miss Felser as Hansel and Miss David as Gretel were rather more than tolerable; Miss

Kirkby Lunn sang beautifully the little bit that is given to the Sandman; and Miss Aldridge made a sufficiently ferocious witch. The "Tannhäuser" performance on Wednesday came as a surprise to most of us who are familiar with Mr. van Dyck's former style. He really sang—sang with beauty and genuine vocal skill; and he acted superbly. His share in the second act was something to be remembered by everyone who was present.

It would be unfair to attempt any criticism of Mr. Harold Bauer in the limited space at my disposal this week. He is a very fine pianist indeed, and should be heard by everyone at his recital next Friday. After that I shall talk about him at some length. I must, however, before it is too late, say a few words about the Moody-Manners Opera Company which I heard at Stratford last week. If Mr. Manners' shows are as good every night as this, he may be reckoned as a far more potent influence than Covent Garden or even the Rosa Company. "Carmen" was the opera I heard. The scenery was quite adequate; the orchestra was adequate; the singers were, with some reservations, good; and the chorus was one of the best I have heard. Mr. John Child got through the job of singing Don Jose in a workmanlike way: it was not a great feat, vocally or dramatically, but it was satisfying. Zelig de Lussan sang Carmen in her familiar way; also she trotted about the stage in her familiar way. Miss Nedda Morrison has much to learn: she must form a definite conception of the part of Michaela and not run through the music as though she were having a singing lesson. But she has a voice, and I think, ability, and ought to make something of herself. Mr. Dever was a competent Toreador. Altogether I have the highest hopes of the Moody-Manners Company, and it ought to be supported by all who desire opera to get a firm grip on this country.

J. F. R.

RECENT INSURANCE REPORTS.

THERE are happily several British insurance companies the position of which is so strong, and the affairs of which are so well managed, that they stand out as institutions probably without rivals in the financial or commercial world. The accounts of three such offices have recently been issued. They are the Hand-in-Hand, the Metropolitan, and the London Life. For a great many years these three companies had, as a common characteristic, the allotment of bonuses only as a reduction of premium, no reversionary additions being made to the policies until the premiums had been extinguished by bonuses. The Hand-in-Hand has in recent years issued policies which receive reversionary additions; but the other two still adhere to reduction of premium as the only form in which bonuses can be taken. The business of the London Life and of the Metropolitan is very small, partly because they employ no agents, and partly because the limited choice of policies which they issue fails to meet the requirements of all classes as assurers. In the course of last year the London Life issued new policies, assuring about £300,000, and the new premiums were less than 3½ per cent. of the total premium income. The result is that the Association grows at an extremely slow rate, and in the course of thirty years has increased its premiums by less than £30,000. The expenditure at which the business is managed is less than 5 per cent. of the premiums, when calculated, as it appropriately ought to be, upon the nominal premiums of £360,000. As however the allowance in reduction of premium amounts to £209,000 the premiums actually received in cash are only £150,000. The rates charged during the first seven years are much higher than those charged by other offices, and consequently a comparison of the expense ratios of the London Life with those of other companies is somewhat unduly favourable to the Association. Nevertheless the fact remains that the office is managed with extreme economy; that its position is one of great financial strength, and that the policies which it offers can hardly be surpassed in excellence by any other company, provided its special system is convenient to the policy-holder.

The Metropolitan works on very similar lines. It is too a mutual office, which pays no commission. Its

policy-holders have the advantage of receiving a reduction of premium after five years. It is managed with very great economy, and has recently issued a new prospectus, offering a considerably greater variety of policies than formerly, and characterised by some particularly favourable rates for non-participating assurance. The position and prospects of the society are, however, so good that a policy-holder would do better to pay the higher premium, and participate in profits, provided he can afford the additional annual payment.

The Hand-in-Hand, after an existence of more than two centuries, exhibits a vitality that is little short of amazing. In a year when most companies showed a falling off in the amount of new business, the Hand-in-Hand showed an increase of about twenty-five per cent. over the previous year, which in turn was the best in the society's experience. The new business for 1900 was more than double the amount for 1894, and about three times as much as it used to be ten years ago. This healthy extension of the business has been accomplished at an extremely moderate expenditure, and as the society is a mutual office the entire profits go to the policy-holders. How large those profits are likely to be may to some extent be judged from the fact that the liabilities are valued on a 2 per cent. basis, which is a lower rate than any other company has adopted. The rate of interest earned upon the funds was £4 4s. per cent. after deduction of income-tax, so that there is no less than £2 4s. per cent. per annum of the funds as a contribution to surplus, in addition to about 7½ per cent. of the premiums, which is the extent to which the provision for expenses exceeds the actual expenditure. The society has never yet failed to maintain a rate of bonus which it has once declared, and its present condition of abnormal financial strength makes it as certain as anything can well be, that its present high rate of bonus will be maintained.

The Fire Department of the society is equally flourishing. The claims absorbed only 39 per cent. of fire premiums, and the expenses 34 per cent., leaving a trading profit of 27 per cent. of the premiums for the benefit of the policy-holders. It is perhaps not generally known that the Hand-in-Hand pays bonuses to those who are insured with it against fire, the result being that its policy-holders obtain the benefits of fire insurance at an unusually low rate, and this is accompanied by the most complete security. In both its branches the Hand-in-Hand must be regarded as a legacy from the seventeenth century for which the twentieth century has every reason to be grateful.

CORRESPONDENCE.

THE ENGLISHMAN AS COLONIST.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

S.-E. Agricultural College,

Wye, Kent, 13 May, 1901.

SIR,—In considering the possibility of effecting any considerable settlement of English farmers in South Africa, it has been urged that we no longer are producing the kind of men who make colonists. The yeoman is almost extinct, the sons of the men who are now farming go into the towns, the better class of labourer does not want to follow agriculture even in a new country; in fact the same causes that are at work in the depopulation of the country districts ensure that there is no surplus for our colonies of men with a rural upbringing.

To a certain extent these objections are true; for many years English agriculture has not been a money-making business, this means that the ordinary farmer has no spare capital for more than one son in his own line, the others must earn their living as they can—they too know where the shoe pinches and look for some business that leads more rapidly than agriculture to a competency. For English tenant-farming affords little opening to a young man with no money at command; it is an individual affair just big enough to require a fair amount of capital but not organised on a sufficiently large scale to provide salaried posts as assistants and managers. But as no great social change ever

operates entirely or at once there are still plenty of farmers' sons who will settle in South Africa, if they can see a chance where knowledge of farming will serve instead of capital.

But apart from the agricultural classes proper there is another considerable source of emigrants; in opposition to the drift into the towns is a steady reflux of young men, who prefer to exchange the prospect of making money in a city for a harder living in the country. The instinct is deep-seated in the English temperament; in all walks of life and all grades of society the boy is common who feels he must earn his living out of doors, and it is not too much to say that the majority of farm pupils and students at agricultural colleges are the sons of men who are not themselves living by the land. On the whole this kind of young man has an indifferent reputation, in the country he is very much in evidence at whatever amusement may be going forward, in the colonies he is derided as either a fine gentleman or a "waster." But the fact remains that in the majority of cases he settles down into a hard-working citizen and we may well inquire why appearances go against him in his youth.

School counts for much in giving him a wrong start, the boy of whom we are writing is eminently "practical," books and the literary point of view are all against the grain; he early makes up his mind that he is a duffer, so does the school, whose routine enables a duffer to live along very comfortably without feeling that he is in anything but the best company. Unfortunately the most valuable faculty the ordinary English boy possesses—the desire to do things and do them in his own way—is also starved, for nowadays the aim of school is to organise the boy's day until every portion of it, both work and play, is under line and rule; the boy passes from a text-book with all the difficulties explained to a carefully prepared pitch with a master coaching behind the net; so that in the end he leaves school unhandy, stupid and self-distrustful in any emergency that calls upon his own resources. Life in England is inevitably circumscribed and dwarfing to that side of the character which makes for action and ready decision, but the glorified nursemaid style of management that our over-large schools favour is helping instead of counteracting the evil. After every allowance for its good side the public school has a deadening effect on the average dullish boy; for five or six years he is allowed to do consciously slipshod work, he is fenced in from the educating influences of ordinary life, meantime the school tradition is creating in him a rounded self-complacency, a belief that other habits, other points of view are "rot." Small wonder that when he starts afresh as a farm pupil or an agricultural student, such a boy takes a few years to acquire a more strenuous habit of mind, if indeed it comes until thrust upon him by the pressure of necessity. Nor is the farm pupil system as worked in England the most suitable training, the relations between farmer and pupil are too fluid; on a good farm there is everything that the pupil ought to learn, but it requires the learner to go more than half-way to meet his work, whereas the boy has been trained, if at all, to a set task. While he is not afraid to labour coat off, he is very much in dread of making himself ridiculous, and when distrustful of his own powers will prefer to wrap himself in a wise passiveness rather than risk a fumble. Nor must it be forgotten that the countryside is the playground of the rich; insensibly the tone is set by the idle man, the atmosphere is one of sport and good living, and the English boy will lead this existence while he has the chance and "jump the life to come."

Such is the origin of an extensive and not over-valued class of English youth; in it are some wasters who earn a bad name for the rest, but in the end character and vitality pull the others through, they find their vocation in the colonies where they can work in their own way and where they are at last freed from the burden of the conventions of the idle classes. This is the raw material for colonisation that England still provides in plenty; of the current generation a large proportion is already in South Africa among the Imperial Yeomanry; to turn them into farmers only needs the organisation of a settlement where they can work under orders till they feel their way to an independent career.

But in the near future the problem must be taken in

hand of saving this valuable material for the needs of the Empire; it is the primitive strain in our highly civilised texture, and is out of harmony with its surroundings; somewhat stupid and content to live for the day, it is pushed aside and wasted; wanting special education it gets the least and the worst; overflowing with activity it earns the reputation of the idle apprentice. The public schools may be blamed for some of the mischief, but after all the schools only reflect the spirit of the people at large; their education will improve when the growing boy finds the men and women round him make more of intelligence and honest work and less of good form and wealth.

I am, &c. A. D. HALL.

THE NATIONAL TRUST.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

1 Great College Street, Westminster, S.W.

14 May, 1901.

SIR,—May I ask permission to call the attention of your readers to the appeal now being made by the Council of the National Trust for funds to enable it to purchase a property on the western shore of Derwent-water?

If the Trust can raise the necessary money in six months it can obtain a mile of shore with woods stretching up from the water's edge, which will be thus secured to the public for ever.

The advantage to visitors of knowing that they can land from boats without trespassing on private property is manifest. To do this is well-nigh impossible at present.

Behind the property is situated the unenclosed common of Catbells', and therefore, if this land is secured for the nation, visitors will be enabled to wander at will from the edge of the Lake to the skyline.

If it becomes the property of the National Trust, the land will be saved, unbuilt upon, and with its natural beauty intact, for the enjoyment of posterity. Only £7,000 is required.—Yours faithfully,

NIGEL BOND, Secretary.

THE "FAITH AND FOLLY" OF MONSIGNOR VAUGHAN.

To the Editor of the SATURDAY REVIEW.

7 Egerton Mansions, S.W.

14 May, 1901.

DEAR SIR,—Some few years ago Monsignor Vaughan wrote a book entitled "Thoughts for All Times" which Dr. Berdoo wittily pointed out began with a chapter on infinite love and ended with one on vivisection. The Monsignor however is to be congratulated on the evidence his new volume "Faith and Folly" affords that though the thoughts he formerly chronicled as "for all times" have not been appreciably modified in the short intervening period, his method of expressing them has certainly become less provocative.

In his earlier book he assured us that if we inflict a painful operation on animals not for their own ultimate good but, under proper and reasonable restrictions, for the express purpose of benefiting mankind then such an act is to be commended and approved. And he based his contention apparently upon the axiom that if the vivisectioner's "purpose" was to benefit mankind nothing he did to sentient animals could be called "cruelty" because "the famous Century Dictionary defines cruelty to be 'an act inflicting severe pain, and done with wilfulness and malice.'" This view of the matter suffers from the slight flaw of enabling anybody successfully to repudiate any charge of cruelty by avowing a beneficent "purpose." It would according to this agreeable theory be no cruelty to flay me alive with red-hot pincers if those who inflicted this torture upon me avowed that their "purpose" was to save my soul by making me subscribe to the doctrine of the infallibility of the Pope. The greatest experts in the infliction of torment that the world has yet seen, viz. the Inquisitor and the Vivisectioner, have both been peculiar among torturers for the extraordinary loftiness of their motives.

Having propounded this plausible defence for the

doings of the vivisectionists the Monsignor proceeded to confuse killing and torturing as identical moral acts and alluding to the destruction of the herd of swine he ventured upon the perpetration of the following sentence:—

"If our divine Lord were living visibly upon earth in these days, even He would scarcely escape prosecution at the hands of the anti-vivisectionists' Societies."

In the same page he allows himself to speak of the herd of swine as "piggies." Such was the Monsignor's earlier manner which I imagine can hardly have given entire satisfaction in the communion of which he is so distinguished an ornament.

In his new volume entitled "Faith and Folly" there is a chapter on "the ethics of animal suffering," and it is satisfactory to observe that in his later manner the Monsignor is no longer flippant over the agonies of his humble fellow-creatures. But his reasoning remains as nebulous as before. He begins the chapter by showing that it is impossible for us to measure the extent of an animal's capacity for pain—a proposition no one can gainsay—and then proceeds to conclude that they suffer less than ourselves! The caterpillar that still eats its cabbage leaf while it is itself eaten by little worms is cited to support this conclusion. But the Monsignor forgets that the caterpillar is not a vertebrate animal, and assumes without a shadow of scientific proof that suffering in the lower forms of life necessarily suspends the feeding instincts. On one page the complaint is made that "men continually argue as though the inferior animals feel quite as acutely as human beings." And a few sentences further on we are invited to "consider the fearful pain caused by the savage beasts which either hunt down their prey like the wolf or the jackal, or lie in wait for it like the *Felinæ*."

But the admired confusion of thought reaches its climax when the pain inflicted by carnivorous animals on their prey is held up to us as part of God's creation and therefore admirable. "Has He not," exclaims the Monsignor, "designed and fashioned and called into being the wolf as well as the lamb, and the vulture no less than the dove?" Yes, no doubt, and Jack the Ripper as well as the Monsignor. But we do well to extirpate the wolves and murderers, and there is an Authority the Monsignor may have heard of for feeding lambs.

We who object to the torture of animals are characterised as "men who are illogical and inconsistent, men who are ruled by sentiment and not by reason."

Now if the Monsignor is correct in his assertion that vivisection of animals "is of immense use" he cannot doubt that the vivisection of men and women would be of still greater use. Does he then advocate the vivisection for experimental purposes of babies, women and men, or is he "illogical and inconsistent," and is he "ruled by sentiment and not by reason"?

There is an authority on the necessity of subjecting the reason to the softer influence of sentiment which the Monsignor *must* respect and which I will quote:—

"One, therefore, who should steel his heart to all the more delicate and gentler promptings of his nature, and refuse to modify his conduct in any way at their bidding, with the view of being directed by the cold blue light of reason alone, would in reality be defeating his own purpose. He would be abusing reason, since reason clearly demands that man should consider and treat himself as a whole, with all his complexity of feelings and sentiments, and not merely as an emotionless logician and metaphysician."

The Monsignor is not the first Man of God who set out to curse and found himself blessing unawares. This passage was written by himself!

The fact is that the world has been in the past and is likely more and more to be in the future ruled by sentiment. Sentiment abolished slavery. Sentiment abolished child labour. Sentiment abolished bear baiting, cock fighting and a thousand selfish and barbarous customs and laws, and Sentiment will, let us hope, abolish vivisection in spite of the somewhat confused support of this dignity of the Roman Catholic Church.

Your obedient servant,

STEPHEN COLERIDGE.

REVIEWS.

KEATS' LETTERS.

"The Complete Works of John Keats." Vols. III.-V. ("The Complete Library.") Glasgow: Gowans and Gray. 1901. 1s. net each.

THE five volumes of this admirable reprint of Mr. Buxton Forman's edition of Keats' Works and Letters have now appeared, and for five shillings we are in possession of what we have already described as an ideal edition. The third volume contains the posthumous poems and all the prose fragments: the dramatic criticisms, Shakespeare marginalia, notes on Milton and on Burton's "Anatomy of Melancholy," &c.; together with an index of titles and of first lines for the three volumes of poems. The fourth and fifth volumes contain the letters, printed in chronological order, those to Fanny Brawne being inserted, as they should be, amongst the others. In Vol. IV. there are twenty-two new pages of biographical memoranda concerning Keats' correspondents, and Vol. V. concludes with a minute general index of fifty pages.

Keats' letters, which we now have for the first time in a complete and convenient form, are as closely personal as the letters of any poet, and have seemed to many to be trivial, almost unworthy, in their familiar frankness. The letters to Fanny Brawne, in particular, have been called unmanly, and their publication harshly and vehemently criticised. These letters, it seems to us, are of great importance in any consideration of the temperament of Keats, and their value as human documents would justify their publication even if they deserved all the harsh things that have been said of them. But they do not. They are the letters of an agony, written by a man dying feverishly to a woman whom he loves with a feverish kind of passion. They are morbid, if you will, they are distressing, infinitely pathetic. They show us the Keats of those passages in which Porphyro grows "unnerved," and Endymion "swoons," and Lycius is "pale with pain." They show us a nature aching with imagination, to which only two things exist: the desire of ideal beauty, which is art, and the desire of human loveliness, concentrated upon one woman. "You could not step or move an eyelid but it would shoot to my heart—I am greedy of you," he writes, with precisely the same ecstasy grown painful through excess of itself that gives the poems those excessive, overcoming heats by which they move us. When Madeline

"Unclasps her warmed jewels one by one,"

when

"Ææa's isle was wondering at the moon,"

when, even, Endymion tells the sisterly moon

"No apples would I gather from the tree

Till thou hadst cooled their cheeks deliciously,"

there is, in all these instances of sensitiveness to sensation, whether, as in the first, warm and bodily, or, in the second, cold and abstract, or, in the third, childlike in the innocence of its voluptuousness, a certain intoxication of the imagination. Keats, rather than Shelley, might have said "I am as a nerve," and, to one whose whole life was imagination, and imagination like the continual touching of a nerve, only such a passion as the passion expressed in the letters to Fanny Brawne was possible. Those letters are the outcry of one whose soul was formed for suffering, as ingeniously as his body was formed for suffering; they are the other side of his poetry, where his poetry was most personal and most impressive.

In the letters to Fanny Brawne there is no good writing, scarcely a fine phrase; they are what they are just because they have no such qualities. But in the other letters with all their delightful homeliness, their humour (sometimes thin and forced, but at other times ripe and refreshing), their straightforward way of telling facts, just such facts as each particular correspondent would want to know, there is always a fine, vivid English, together with strong thinking and a thoroughly masculine sense of reality. "I find," he writes, "that I can have no enjoyment in the world but continual drinking of knowledge. I find there is

no worthy pursuit but the idea of doing some good in the world." And he adds, in the same letter: "I have been hovering for some time between an exquisite sense of the luxurious, and a love for philosophy." Every mood finds expression as it comes and goes; often, we may conjecture, the mood lasting no longer than the time during which it writes itself on paper. Sometimes, but rarely, he turns to abstract moralising, and can express his sense of the art of life, of life as a work of art, in a sort of anticipation of what seems to us a peculiarly modern view: "May there not be superior beings, amused with any graceful, though instinctive, attitude my mind may fall into, as I am entertained with the alertness of the stoat, or the anxiety of the deer?" He confesses his failings or his successes with the same unconsciousness, in a kind of haughty humility; as when he admits that his "pride and egotism" will "enable him to write finer things than anything else could, so," he concludes, "I will indulge it." It is with an unusually significant glimpse into his mental processes that we find him proposing to learn Greek, but, on second thoughts, asking Reynolds to read it aloud to him: "'Twould be, from its mistiness, perhaps a greater luxury than reading the thing oneself." Does not that admission prepare the way for the sonnet on first looking into Chapman's "Homer"? Similarly a phrase in one of the letters from Wales, telling how "the mountains weighed very solemnly upon me," and another phrase, admitting that he "cannot recollect" a landscape which he wants to describe, show, between them, that sensitiveness to natural things which exists in him without any very keen observation of what is before his eyes. "One who passes his life among books and thoughts on books:" that, after all, in his own words, is the summing up of what he really, for the most part, was. His early desire,

"To sit and rhyme, and think on Chatterton,"

was never far from his mind, and the prayer which he offered in his first book was certainly fulfilled:

"That I may die a death
Of luxury, and my young spirit follow
The morning sun-beams to the great Apollo
Like a fresh sacrifice."

His letters, in their boyish openness, betray the constant and unwearied preoccupation with that one idea, the idea of poetry; and, as we come across a first version of "La Belle Dame sans Merci" copied into the letter-journal sent to George and Georgiana Keats, along with some jokes about the reason for the "kisses four," it is as if we looked over his shoulder while he was writing, surprising some of the secrets of what was most conscious and most unconscious in him. In all Keats' letters there are no disguises; he never writes insincerely and he never writes for effect. When beauty comes into them, as it does so often, it is because it was impossible for him to think or write without beauty.

"NEO-PLATONISM."

"The Neo-Platonists." By Thomas Whittaker. Cambridge: At the University Press. 1901. 7s. 6d.

WE welcome the volume before us as unquestionably the best introduction to the study of the Neo-Platonists, whose names are so familiar to the student of philosophy, whose doctrines and writings are so obscure. The author is singularly well equipped for a difficult task. He is not merely an abstract speculator; he is a clear-sighted historian, whose knowledge of the past sometimes leads him to prophetic insight into the future. He closely connects the "setting" of events and circumstances in the Roman Empire with the "portraits" of these philosophic personalities. He traces with acuteness and with sympathy the course of Hellenic thought, and claims for his favourites a lineal and unsullied descent from the original pioneers. He reduces to a minimum the supposed Oriental influence, to which were once attributed the speculations of Plotinus, Porphyry, Iamblichus and Proclus (200-480 A.D.). He believes native and undiluted

Hellenism is seen almost more clearly in these than in their master himself; and he urges on the inquirer the duty of considering them rather from a metaphysical than from a religious and emotional point of view. We cordially hail this advice. There is nothing in the newest Academy that is not to be found already, overtly or implicitly, in the teaching of the Porch—except a metaphysical system. We have too long been accustomed to contrast the heroic defiance of the Roman Stoics with the seductive and effeminate resignation or Quietism of the East; which penetrating Rome in the second and following centuries, in the worship of Mithra or the orgies of Cybele and Isis, in the strange cults of Ophites and Gnostics, finally overpowered the clear judgment of the Greeks, and led Reason to pronounce its own death-warrant. But we have learnt to read the history of the Empire and the development of its speculation more accurately to-day. Strange though it may appear, Christianity and Platonism, one in the practical, the other in the speculative domain, are the two influences which combined to throw off the oppressive thralldom of Greek passivity. Optimism and love of nature and the beautiful is restored by Plotinus to an age which had learnt from the morbid fatigue of Aurelius to despise the monotony of the visible universe. The early monks and anchorites are the last followers of the Greek sages, in their self-sufficing solitariness; for the true Christian spirit we must look to the new Pythagorean communities of Western Cœnobitism. The professed optimism of the Stoics concealed chagrin, satiety and defiance; and it is in their "best of all possible worlds" that suicide becomes an authorised and encouraged way of escape. The school passed from an early naïve Materialism to an emotional Pantheism, which denied, strangely enough, the reign of the Deity in the domain of the visible, or the efficacy of the sage's endeavour in society. With Manichean dualism they abandoned the present to the capricious sovereignty of Fortune: and prescribed for the wise an absolutely negative ethic. Contact with Roman character, repressed into excessive self-consciousness under the early Empire, produced some noble illustrations of thought and conduct. But the spring of action was never the physical positivism or superficial teleology, which delighted the first Stoics; rather it was the natural heroism of Rome, finding in resignation the "whole Duty of Man." As the sense of evil in the world deepened in the reflecting minds of the first two centuries after Christ, so the boasted independence of the sage, and the supremacy of Reason vanished as dogmas from the Stoic system. Cosmopolitanism, effected by Rome or by the Gospel, while the Stoic dilates vaguely on its theoretic beauty, had upset men's satisfaction in the "trivial round, the common task" and had given no rule of this wider and more indefinite citizenship in exchange. Seneca, Epictetus, Aurelius, mark a gradual advance towards Platonism, and a reaction against a physical conception of Deity. The doctrine of a personal providence, extending to individuals, reappears in the Phrygian slave, as it had in Socrates, 350 years before; whilst the Imperial Stoic attempts to find some solace for this despairing outlook by an inward communion with the Divine, which is the common tenet of Mystics in every age and clime. The long-neglected particular becomes a refracted ray of the central Being; a detached portion of Deity; and from the gross and indifferent Materialism of Zeno and Chrysippus arises a system which at least in language is pious devotional and spiritual. The sage no more claims independence and superiority; he is content to surrender himself entirely and without reserve to a Providence which he trusts but cannot understand.

At such a moment the New Platonism arises, conscious of the eternal worth of such an attitude of humility, but professing also to unlock the secrets and disclose the radiance of the hidden world of Deity. Stoic in moral principles, they complete by analysis of self the Aristotelian metaphysics; and bring tidings of the permeation of universal being with a single principle of goodness. While Stoicism had set in violent contrast God and the world, the Sage and nature, fortune or society, the Platonist expatiated on the essential harmony of the whole, and maintained the

derivative perfection of even the lowest sphere of the material world. Who can read the noble defence of our visible system against the Gnostics in Plotinus' Second Ennead without being struck with the modernness, the hopefulness, of the style and treatment? The gloom of the Antoninian age has given place to the new stirrings of the third century. Clement and Origen in Alexandria and Plotinus in Rome mark by their signal confidence and tolerance, as well by their profound learning, an epoch which is usually dismissed as the nadir of intellectual and civil life, in the records of human history. And the secret of this change is the new value which was attached to personality. To the Stoics, subjective though they were, it was a mere episode, or a lapse; at all events, a puzzle which could neither be disregarded (for they dimly felt that after all it was the only real), nor reconciled with the Single Being. But Plotinus (and still more Proclus in his dogma of Henads) finds a reason and a subsistence for individual, yet coherent life, high up in the spiritual world. Not, as to the Schoolmen, was matter the cause of this regrettable circumscription and finitude. No; the secret of life was "One-in-many;" a play of reciprocal forces, in competition and emulation which sometimes seemed discordant, but which was held in harmonious interaction by a higher principle, enfolding and embracing, without stifling the individual.

Here is the permanent contribution of the Neo-Platonists to philosophic thought; in a metaphysical system, which within a singularly living unity found room for a real diversity; not in a doctrine of ecstasy, which, though the culmination of the holiest and best life, was yet neither indispensable and imperative for all, nor even the central point in their teaching. Even if it were, we must carefully distinguish the joyless self-abandonment of the Stoic to the unknown, from the glad pietistic rapture of answered prayer; or the consciousness of divine companionship. Quite agreeably with this was their teaching on the various and progressive stages of enlightenment. The post-Aristotelian schools found in a purely typical excellence ("man as a reasonable animal") the whole and exhaustive ideal of his being. How quickly this nominally moral, really intellectual, ideal decayed into pure negative Quietism, is a matter of history. But the new school found in a hierarchy of existences a place for every nature, from the matter which acquires beauty through our appreciation up to the central goodness itself—and for mankind, from the most ignorant and humble worshipper at some local shrine, up to the perfect Ascetic, who has seen through the manifold of polytheism to the identity beyond.

As compared with the earlier school, Neo-Platonism is as Catholicism to Calvinistic Dissent. The sweeping division of wise and fools, of "saved and lost," the "instantaneous conversion," the indifference of external action, or the "sinfulness of doing," are features common to the rationalism of the Stoics and certain modern schools of emotional religion. But the charm of Catholicism is seen in the last Greek school; tolerance, optimism, and a firm hold on the oft-forgotten truth of the "many mansions," and the manifold variety of ideals for men, the intrinsic worth and meaning of each man's physical moral and mental equipment. Unity, whether in metaphysics or practice, in philosophy or in politics, is no Procrustean rigidity; but exists only in and through Diversity.

Just as the mediæval system, for all its realism in Church and State and abstract theology, for all its formal neglect of the particular, is founded upon the "aboriginal and imperishable value" of the single soul—so the problem for Plotinus was to do justice to the individual, while recognising the eternal claims, the omnipresence, of the One. In this system he succeeded far better than Spinoza, far better than Schleiermacher, to name two instances, where Pantheism fails to console or to explain the pains and hopes of human consciousness. The volume under review is a painstaking and sympathetic survey of a movement which has not lost all interest for us at the present day. The work, though difficult reading, except to the adept, and on occasion obscure and ambiguous, can be confidently recommended as the most satis-

factory introduction to the last Hellenistic school of thought.

THE UNKNOWN BIRD WORLD.

"A Handbook of British Birds." By J. E. Harting. London: Nimmo. 1901. 42s. net.

IT is no reproach to Mr. J. E. Harting's "Handbook of British Birds," a new and revised edition of which has just appeared, to say that many new works of the kind are not likely to be called for by the bird-lovers of the near future. Mr. Harting's volume is packed with a great quantity of carefully sifted information about the geographical distribution, the breeding grounds, the scientific arrangement and nomenclature of the birds of the British Isles. It is particularly strong in records relating to the occurrence in this or that county of various rare and accidental visitors during the past century—too many of which, pitiable to relate, have been established by the abuse of the gun; it contains most minute measurements of each species; it has a bibliography of county ornithologies; it is full of coloured pictures of the heads of the great majority of British, even of reputed British, species. Mr. Harting has given up ungrudgingly a large part of his time to collecting trustworthy information of this description about birds, and we may feel that in trusting to authorities like himself or Mr. Howard Saunders, who compressed and brought up to date Yarrell's "British Birds," or Professor Newton of the "Dictionary of Birds," we are perfectly safe in regard to such facts as they offer to us. If Mr. Harting says that such and such a reported occurrence of the great black woodpecker is a good one, we may take it that the bird will rank henceforth as "British." Works like the "Handbook of British Birds" therefore, when compiled by so trained and truth-loving an ornithologist as Mr. Harting, will always have a place on the shelves devoted to natural history. But the bird books of the near future, which will be read eagerly and largely, will, we are confident, treat of birds from an entirely different point of view. The bird-writer of to-morrow will have nothing to tell us about classification and the like: he will leave his readers uninformed as to the length of the tarsus of the birds he deals with, and it is more than likely he will be uninformed himself on that subject. The primaries and secondaries will not be considered, and neither Gmelin nor Latham nor Meyer and Wolf will come in for a single quotation. We shall look for, and we shall at length get, some real account of the life lived by the birds. The labours of the pioneers of ornithology in the past, the labours of men like Mr. Harting and Mr. Howard Saunders in our own day have paved the way for the new ornithology. The birds have all been admirably arranged and divided up into their proper groups and families: all are neatly ticketed.

Nothing remains now but to go out into the fields and woods and make ourselves familiar with bird life. Of that life, the most exquisite perhaps on the earth, our books tell us practically nothing. We want to know exactly how the birds build their nests, exactly why they sing: we want to see them at work and at play, and to know something of their loves and their hates, of their toilette, their travels, their relaxations, their etiquette, their marriage customs. The writer who desires to throw some light on these things, which alone really deserve to be called bird life, will leave the bird-books and maps and lists at home, and go out day after day in all weathers and at all seasons of the year, and hide himself and pry unceasingly into the haunts of his "feathered friends." He will meet with many and sometimes perhaps disheartening reverses. He will find the spring days cruelly few and short, and many a precious hour of patient search will prove fruitless; but the intense fascination of wandering alone in the ways of the birds, of entering into their lives, will prevail in the end over every difficulty. A world fresh and full of rare glamour lies open to the explorer: the wonder is that it has remained untrodden and apparently almost undreamt of by some centuries of bird-lovers.

THE STORY OF THE LITTLE MAN ISLAND.

"The History of the Isle of Man." By A. W. Moore.
2 vols. London: Unwin. 1900. 32s.

IT is best to begin at the beginning. But this history begins before history began. We need hardly trace however the physical formation of the Island of Man, nor follow all the speculation regarding the Neolithic or new Stone age. The secular history of the island during the Celtic period is practically a blank. Interest in the narrative begins to quicken with the advent of Christianity for the island lying midway between England, Wales, Ireland and Scotland. Missionaries from all these neighbours came in turn. The Scandinavians first appeared in the eighth century—mere plunderers at first but later as settlers. The King Orry of tradition is identified with Godred Crovan, a Viking from Iceland whose conquest of the Manx in 1079 was complete. Thereafter for two centuries Godred and his descendants ruled the land. In the thirteenth century Reginald, who was then ruling Man, did homage to King John in England. But Reginald had no fine scruples, he was equally ready to do homage to the King of Norway. This involved him in difficulties and war, and he fell a victim to the English soldiers in 1228 at the battle of Tynwald. When the Norsemen came to the island, they came on the venture, and being satisfied, remained and married Manx wives. The influence of that invasion is still manifest, and their Tynwald, or open-air parliament, remains a remarkable visible link with the distant past, all other Tynwalds having vanished from the earth. The Norsemen, impressed by the almost interminable winters of their early home, worshipped the Sun on the day he was longest above the horizon. This was 21 June, but in Christian times the heathenish festival was delayed to the nearest Saint's day, the 24th, or S. John the Baptist's day, so that the date 5 July as at present observed is accounted for by the eleven days involved in the change of the calendar. The Celtic Sun-worshippers adopted 1 August when the sun is hottest and the change of eleven days in the calendar again accounts for the quarter-days that are still observed on the island—12 August, 12 November, 12 February, and 12 May.

The Norsemen have also left their mark on the geographical divisions of the island. These "sheadings" which constitute electoral districts to this day and send their representatives to the House of Keys, were originally "ship districts," each sheading being required to fit out its quota of ships and men for purposes of defence or for mere conquest. Every intelligent visitor to the island is interested in the crosses with Runic inscriptions. These, too, belong to the Norse period, and certainly not earlier than the twelfth century, the Runic alphabet coming to Man from the Greeks along the trade route over Central Europe and thence through Norway. But the leading incident in Manx history is the founding of the Abbey of Rushen in 1134. Manxmen in these degenerate days—so regardless are they of their historic past and so indifferent to the preservation of every precious object that links them to the great dead—note with indifference that the Abbot's house is an hotel while other remains of the monastery are put to no more exalted use than that of a garden storehouse. The Abbey was an offshoot of Furness Abbey and the monks belonged to the Cistercian order. Remote as they were, the monks exercised a great influence on the life of the community, and whether or not tradition speaks truly of their ascetic life, of their living by their labour alone "with great mortification," we have handed down to us from their hands many interesting records of the island. But however remote, they did not escape the unsolicited attention of Henry VIII., and when Bishop Stanley extended to them the protection of his name and place he was promptly deprived of his episcopacy. Yet in an island that is now so emphatic in its Protestantism, it is interesting to note that Rushen Abbey continued until the later part of the reign of Elizabeth, and that Man was the very last to feel the influence of the changing times in the Reformation.

A hundred years after the arrival of the Cistercians, the Isle of Man had its own Bishop, its own Cathedral

and Chapter. The Cathedral of S. German is still an object of interest. It is situated on what was S. Patrick's Isle near Peel, but an isle no longer, for a practical age has built a heavy stone wall connecting the lesser island to the larger, thereby protecting the entrance to the harbour. But the sea still beats on S. Patrick's Isle in all its terrible fury, and on days of storm, the peace within these great walls must have afforded a striking contrast to the deafening roar of wind and waves without. It would be too much to hope that so interesting a collection of buildings as Peel Castle and S. German Cathedral should have escaped spoliation. Amid much good work rendered to the island during the period of his governorship, Sir Spencer Walpole will not venture to include the work of restoration carried out here in his name. The presence of these old walls however still constitutes Peel "a city" though it remains no more than a fishing village. The title of "Bishop of Sodor and Man" is another object of common interest and perplexity. Confusion, however, becomes the worse confounded by every elaborate effort to solve the mystery. We are not in the least disposed to accept the explanation that "Sodor" was a name given to S. Patrick's Isle when the original significance had disappeared. We know that originally canonical obedience was given to Canterbury, later to York. But as early as the twelfth century Man had become a part of the diocese of Sodor in the province of the Archbishop of Drontheim in Norway. Sodor meant Southern Isle as distinct from the Orkney and Shetland Islands which were the Northern Isles. This ecclesiastical connexion with Norway continued for centuries thereafter. The addition of "and Man" was clearly the blunder of a legal draftsman. But the Isle of Man is an island of strange accidents, anomalies and surprises. Its later history beginning with the reign of the Stanley family in 1405 is more familiar and for the most part belongs to the realm of ascertained fact and well-authenticated history. We have for instance the origin of "the Derby" in the Isle of Man, before its revival on the Epsom Downs, and we have spiritual courts exercising powers over the people that provide surprising reading nowadays.

Within reasonable limits this history was well worth writing, for the island has many claims upon our attention as Mr. Halliwell-Phillips testified in his very scanty volume, though, by the way, no reference to the investigations of the Shakespearian scholar are made in these pages, and if the atmosphere of fairy tale, with all its delightful make-believe, witchery and romance has disappeared with the advent of the dreaded excursionist and the unemotional historian, there still remains a story of real human interest and one that casts many side lights upon life and society in the "adjacent island" of Great Britain.

GOTHIC GOLD.

"Le Trésor de Pétroussa. Historique—Description. Étude sur l'Orfèvrerie Antique." By A. Odobesco.
Paris: Rothschild. 1889-1900. 200f. and 240f.

IN the early spring of 1837 a gold treasure of singular interest was discovered by two Roumanian peasants, inhabitants of Pétroussa, a hamlet on the southern slopes of the Transylvanian Alps. For more than a year the finders regarded their spoil as objects of curiosity rather than of intrinsic value. Its true character was first discovered by an Albanian master-mason, one Verussi, who lost no time in buying the hoard, which he forthwith broke up with a hatchet, consigning some of its pieces to the melting-pot. Most of the stones, with which the ornaments were thickly set, were thrown away as rubbish, to be routed out by village swine, and collected by the village children. From this beginning, rumour quickly spread, and governmental authorities intervened. In the result the discovery brought little but vexation and sorrow to those concerned. Both the original finders died in prison, before the consequent litigation was brought to an end, while "a year of seclusion and thirty blows of the stick" were the reward that fell to their first confidants. The treasure, which had been

annexed by the Government, was brought to Paris for the Exhibition of 1867, and was subsequently shown at South Kensington, where its chief pieces may still be seen, in electrotype reproductions. But the adventures of the originals were by no means at an end, when they had returned from the West to the Bucharest Museum. A daring and successful burglary was effected in 1875 by a student, who concealed himself in a library above the museum, descended by night through the floor, and escaped by the way he came with the whole of the collection. One piece alone, which he threw away in his flight, was seen lying in the snow by an astonished professor going to an early lecture. Happily however the police were able promptly to put their hands on the lost objects, which were thus saved from the melting-pot though lamentably injured by this renewed violence. Their subsequent adventures have included a hasty removal on account of fire, and a considerable restoration.

The minute study of this much-suffering treasure was the life-work of M. A. Odobesco, Professor of Archaeology at Bucharest. After many difficulties and disappointments his monumental "Trésor de Pétrossa" has at length appeared, four years after the death of the author. The first sheets of the book were sent to press in 1884, but some of the plates had been prepared as long ago as 1873. The secondary title states that the book is a study of ancient jewelry and such a name is certainly called for, in view of the astonishing length and amplitude to which the learned professor has developed his subject. In truth however the work is in one sense a fragment, for only three objects are fully discussed in the first volume in 426 folio pages. The author was not able to carry out his intention of discussing the remainder at equal length, and the work is brought to a comparatively sudden close, the last two volumes having respectively 111 and 26 pages.

It seems possible however to state the general character and position of the objects which compose this remarkable treasure, in a more restricted space. Most of the pieces found are examples of a singularly rude and vigorous form of barbaric art. Its chief characteristics are a free use of strongly conventionalised animal forms, such as great bird-shaped fibulæ, and an ornamentation consisting of pierced gold work, combined with a copious use of stones cut to special shapes, and set as cloisonné jewelry. Besides the fibulæ already mentioned this part of the collection includes a beaker, a twelve-sided basket, and an eight-sided basket, each with panther handles. But a part of the treasure is of a wholly different character. A bowl with sixteen figures in relief represents one of the latest stages of classical tradition. Some of the types are unmistakable, such as a half-draped Apollo with a lyre and a gryphon, or a Hermes, with caduceus corrupted to a whip. Others seem to be personifications of a vaguer kind, such as figures of the Seasons and the like. One object alone bears an inscription, namely, one of the torques, which has incised Gothic runes. These were at first read and interpreted as Greek, meeting a converse fate to that of the Greek inscription of Brough, which was first read as runic. There are only fifteen characters, probably three words, of which it seems fairly certain that the last means "sacred," and it is possible that the first gives the name of the Goths. Professor Odobesco, after reciting all the attempts of his predecessors, offers an absolutely unconvincing translation, namely an interrogative "Is not Scythia sacred to the Goths?"

Be the interpretation as it may, the runes seem to make it certain that the treasure was at any rate the property of Goths, who are known to have been settled on the Danube in the third and fourth centuries A.D. Towards the close of the fourth century they were swept away by the torrent rush of the Huns. A part, which may be called classical, had been obtained by intercourse with Constantinople. The part which is strongly barbaric has its affinities in objects found over a vast area extending from Siberia to Spain. In its later and more refined forms, the style is known by the name, now somewhat out of favour, of Merovingian. Its rudest forms occur in the Far East in the strange

and uncouth hoards from Siberian tombs, now in the museum of the Hermitage. The treasure of Pétrossa is intermediate between East and West, and between the earliest and latest products of the school. The author seeks to show that it was once the property of Athanaric. This must remain a conjecture, but in any case the treasure is a singular and most interesting document, vividly illustrating the period when the northern nations in their onward march had reached the ancient frontiers of imperial Rome.

A SHORT HISTORY OF FLORENCE.

"The Story of Florence." By Edmund G. Gardner. Illustrated by Nelly Erichsen. London: Dent. 1900. 4s. 6d. net.

THIS work takes us, in its historic section, down to the end of the reign of the first Grand Duke, Cosimo, who died in 1574. Mr. Gardner tells us in his preface that the object of the book is "to supply a popular history of the Florentine Republic . . . to tell again the tale of those of her streets and buildings, and indicate those of her artistic treasures which are either most intimately connected with that story or most beautiful in themselves." Be it said at once that Mr. Gardner has attained his object. As historian he is clear, as art critic convincing, as antiquary instructive, as guide entertaining and ubiquitous. It is no light matter to write in brief compass of a city which had a far more important part in the world's history than many nations. Mr. Gardner's book suffers a little—a keen expert, he suffers himself—from the cruel needs of compression. But the compression has been skilfully done, and with all the true scholar's resignation to the inevitable. The first four chapters of the book tell of the history of Florence, the next eight are descriptive of its monuments and pictures, the thirteenth and last deals with its setting or surroundings. There is a genealogical table of the Medici, a chronological list of architects, sculptors and painters, and the outline at least of a general index. We have in substance nothing but praise for the book; and for that very reason will proceed at once to offer the few criticisms which we find necessary.

Mr. Gardner is much taken up with Savonarola, and though he does not lose his head—as is the fashion—in the presence of the formidable friar, he spares him too much space. It is for this reason, perhaps, that he has been over-curt and summary with a higher type of Florentine, the saintly Archbishop Antoninus. He does not like the Medici, and in condemning their vices he is apt to lose sight of their virtues and good works. Since he tells us, though with a brevity out of proportion to the rest of the story, of the reign of Cosimo I., "the ablest and most ruthless" of the rulers of Florence, he might have spared a word for the institution of the Knights of S. Stephen, through whom this ruthless ruler wreaked some of his ruthlessness on that great pest of Christendom and commerce, the Barbary pirates. We also note a slip which reads like an approval of assassination (even in the case of a Lorenzo de' Medici murder is prohibited by the Decalogue): "the dagger of Lorenzino happily annulled &c." (p. 405). Mr. Gardner loses sight of the feudal system, and we are never clearly told—a most important fact—that Cosimo held the Florentine State from the Emperor and his portion of the Siennese State, which it is simply stated that he "conquered," from the King of Spain. And we see with regret that the author, like Mr. Maurice Hewlett, adopts the usage of speaking of "Madonna" instead of The or La Madonna. Madonna was applicable to any woman; custom and Christian deference require the definite article in exaltation of the chief of women. In his account of the "setting" of Florence Mr. Gardner wanders somewhat far afield seeing that he is already suffering from the need of compression. Not content with taking us to Prato and Pistoia, he leads us into the heart of the Casentino, to Bibbiena, Camaldoli and the summit of Mount La Verna. We fully understand the temptation—"an earthly Paradise," he rightly calls the Casentino—but then the book is concerned with Florence and not with the remoter

territories of the Grand Duchy of Tuscany. It is the high general excellence of the book alone that makes us call attention to these trifling inadequacies.

Miss Nelly Erichsen's illustrations are in the main excellent. The almost total absence of cross-hatching is an exceedingly agreeable and welcome feature. The drawing of the picturesque Porta San Giorgio is a little gem (p. 403). But the two religious in the cloister of Santa Maria Novella (p. 357) should be clad in the Dominican habit: their apparel in the picture looks more like an alb than anything else. The heraldic drawings, instead of being copied from old existing examples in stone or marble, would have been more instructive had they indicated colours and metals according to the rules of heraldry. As for the heraldic achievement on the back of the book, which will stare an intelligent public in the face from the shop windows, it is something of a puzzle. We have a crozier and a lance in saltire but debarring a shield instead of being placed behind it. The crozier points inwards as in the case of Mitred Abbots, yet we feel sure that an Episcopal Crozier is intended. The shield itself is red, but the cross upon it is of the colour of the binding, a tincture unknown in heraldry. At the base of the shield is an Esquire's helmet but facing to sinister, the sign of bastardy! It looks like a reflection upon Florentine morals. We think we can divine the designer's meaning, but it has been faultily and clumsily expressed.

NOVELS.

"The Madness of David Baring." By Joseph Hocking. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1900. 6s.

That we are all Socialists now, has become a trite observation. But even the wisest of us would find it in his heart to object to the term if all Socialists were of the same unpleasant type which Mr. Hocking has drawn in "The Madness of David Baring." Oliver Goldsmith has told us that a book may be very dull without a single absurdity. Mr. Hocking has proved that the same adjective can be applied to a work in which absurdities abound. The whole tone of the story, from the first chapter where the young Oxford undergraduate becomes possessed of untold wealth, to the moment where he gives it up to join a socialistic community, is artificial in the extreme. The only touch of real dramatic interest in the book is the alarming popularity which the new brother, being a goodly person and well favoured, soon acquires among his new sisters, one of whom goes to the length of remarking before a crowded audience that Heaven matched them before they ever saw each other. The surprised Oxonian ungallantly disputes this statement, and the episode is followed by an engagement to his real affinity. The prospect of love minus even the cottage, is discouraging to the youth, till he discovers that his lawyers, who we are inclined to believe are the only level-headed people in the book, have neglected to give all his goods to the poor as they had received orders to do. And looking round on his fat and newly recovered acres the youth kisses his ladye faire and thanks God that he was mad. Mr. Hocking has done better work than this and we hope will do it again. In the meantime he would do well to remember that this slight easy stuff is not calculated to add to his reputation.

"A Cardinal and his Conscience." By Graham Hope. London: Smith, Elder. 1901. 6s.

Though this story falls under the heading of "historical novel," it advantageously dispenses with a large proportion of the elements which often go to make that literary form, in any hand but a master's, distinctly stilted and wearisome. Bloodshed is infrequent, and is usually a merely historical item of the background; brigands are not prevalent, though a very early chapter is ominously according to precedent in this respect; and although the differences of Catholics and Huguenots are a chief feature of the plot, the reader's sympathies are definitely enlisted neither on one side nor the other, and he is left to assort the sheep and the goats for himself with a freedom which, though doubtless reprehensible as a matter of dogma, adds distinctly to his appreciation of the story. The emotional power of this

novel, which is considerable, comes in fact from a very fresh and modern treatment of a well-conceived romantic situation; and the historical grandeur of the Guises and their stormy pre-eminence in Church and State are used successfully to heighten the stress of the Cardinal's struggle with his priestly conscience. The heroine, round whom the struggle rages, is a figure of considerable freshness, and the pathos of her conflicts and sad end are well drawn.

"His Own Father." By W. E. Norris. London: Hurst and Blackett. 1901. 3s. 6d.

Admirers of Mr. Norris' work in fiction may justly feel a kind of respectful irritation at this latest book of his, which shows all the characteristic defects of the practised hand. The figures of the narrative, skilfully and to a certain degree attractively drawn though they are, behave from beginning to end in entire subservience to the successive stages of a plot which works itself out with an ingenious smoothness amounting to positive effrontery, while that leisured ease of style which is Mr. Norris' own only serves in the present instance to heighten this effect of machine-made precision. If the characters in the story, and their creator, did not seem so obviously capable of displaying a greater vitality and initiative if they chose, the reader might perhaps be contented with the effective precision and adjustment of the plot's complications, though even so exception would have to be taken to the crowning incident which supplies the book with its title; this scene, though mitigated as far as possible by the author's urbanity of touch, is still melodrama unredeemed. Though each individual page is pleasant reading enough, the effect of the whole book is more than a little provoking.

"Belinda Fitzwarren." By the Earl of Iddesleigh. London: Methuen. 1901. 6s.

"I was dreadfully theatrical," Belinda sighed. "I believe that I am just made up of tinsel." Belinda's account of herself not inaptly describes the book named after her. The Earl of Iddesleigh's novel contains all the obvious essentials of Adelphi melodrama, and the writing is thin and a little pretentious. "Belinda Fitzwarren" is interesting as an experiment made by the bearer of an honoured name, and it will satisfy the canons of criticism and taste which obtain among patrons of the weekly novelette.

NEW BOOKS AND REPRINTS.

"The Sword and the Centuries." By Alfred Hutton, F.S.A. London: Grant Richards. 1901. 15s.

Captain Hutton is a well-known figure in the fencing world and has carried his enthusiasm in the art of fencing to the extent of visiting the public schools and organising fencing clubs. But the present book is less educative than most of those he has previously written. It is a history of the development of weapons of attack through all ages to the present, and from its nature is largely the result of the previous works of such writers as Olivier de la Marche, Coustard de Massi. Most of the many illustrations are strictly of the sword itself in many shapes, and round most of the principal weapons Captain Hutton has gathered a group of those anecdotal illustrations which lie round the edge of history. They are not all marked by credibility and they do not lose point in the telling.

"The War Office, the Army and the Empire." By H. O. Arnold-Forster. London: Cassell. 1900. 1s. 6d.

Especial interest attaches to this publication through its being an outspoken criticism of our military system by a member of the present Government; and in view of recent events his comments on the Commander-in-Chief's position are worthy of notice. Thus—"the Commander-in-Chief who is, or ought to be, the best soldier in the army, has ceased to have any real responsibility whatever," and "it is clear that as between the Secretary of State and the Commander-in-Chief, the former has all the power and responsibility and the latter none"—statements which very pertinently describe the actual state of affairs. Mr. Arnold-Forster is perhaps a little unfair in condemning a system by which "no single army corps is ever fit to take the field" at once on an emergency. The same thing exists in every European army—except in such isolated cases as some of the Russian troops on the German and Austrian frontiers. Nor is he right in assuming that the money spent on the young soldiers who, at the commencement of the war, were unable to take the field was wasted. The majority have since become effective soldiers. There are some traces of hurry and careless-

ness in the book, or the author would hardly have stated that "at Austerlitz the Prussian army was practically annihilated"!

"Australasia Old and New." By J. Grattan Grey. London: Hodder and Stoughton. 1901. 7s. 6d.

Mr. Grattan Grey's idea evidently is that the first essential of a new book on Australasia is a portrait of the writer. We should have imagined that a map might have proved more serviceable, especially as he harps continually on the ignorance of the British public of all things Australasian. A picture of Mr. Grattan Grey, however excellent, will hardly assist knowledge. There are some things of which Mr. Grattan Grey is himself so profoundly sure that he repeats them. For instance, he tells us twice within twenty pages that Tasmania was known as Van Diemen's Land from its discovery down to 1854. As a matter of fact the name was changed in 1855. One who is so familiar with Australia should be able to spell correctly the name of Sir John Forrest. Strong prejudices—which in the case of New Zealand assume the form of wholesale allegations of corruption and incompetence—and a pachydermatous assumption of superiority notwithstanding, Mr. Grey has written an entertaining if not a very necessary book.

"Papers for Working-Men." By the Bishop of London.

"Addresses to Working Lads." By the Bishop of London.

"The Driving Wheel." By a Parliamentary Reporter.

S.P.C.K. 1901. 6d. each.

The two tracts for working-men, which were written for use at Oxford House by the present Bishop of London, fulfil their object excellently. They are very clear and very simple, admirable exponents of the "sweet reasonableness" of Christianity from the point of view of the working-man. "The Driving Wheel" is a slight sketch of our political system, clearly written but perhaps scarcely technical enough. It is designed to give the more ignorant voter an idea of what "Liberal" and "Conservative" and "the Houses of Parliament" mean.

"The Hoosiers." By J. Nicholson. London: Macmillan. 1900. 5s.

The book, one of a series of national studies in American life, is an interesting inquiry into the history of the people of Indiana. Why its people were called Hoosiers is a question still unsettled; and the derivation from "who's here?" seems as unlikely as the worst of the philological suggestions in the *Fæst*. The chapter on the early writers is of especial interest.

"The Law Magazine and Review." London: May 1901. 5s.

Apart from the ordinary features of this magazine which are as usual well done we may mention articles by Mr. R. W. Wallace, K.C., on "The Working of the Patent Acts" in which he selects certain matters which should be inquired into by a commission preparatory to legislation; by Dr. Williams on the Latin of the *Corpus Civilis* and by Mr. T. W. Marshall, B.C.L., on the study of the Roman Law in England which may be grouped together and to which may be added the interesting article on "Debt Slavery in the Malay Peninsula" by Mr. T. Baty, B.C.L., on account of its analogy to a similar institution in ancient Roman Law. In the same way may be grouped two legal antiquarian articles one by Mr. Ernest Jelf on "The Inns of Chancery" and a very lucid and compendious account by Mr. Erasmus Darwin Parker on the "Origin and History of the King's Bench Division." Mr. Percy Pain's short article on "The Demise of the Crown" deals with the now familiar subject of the consequences to Parliament and on office-holders under the Crown of the death of the Sovereign.

FRENCH LITERATURE.

Cent Jours du Siège à la Préfecture de Police. By E. Cresson. Paris: Plon. 1901. 7f. 50c.

Only after infinite persuasion from Jules Favre, his intimate friend, and General Trochu, the Military Governor of Paris, did M. Cresson consent to fill the arduous and dangerous post of Préfet de Police in November, 1870. Hitherto, his life had been uneventful, and, in undertaking the ordeal of keeping Paris in order during a period of unrest, anarchy, and famine, he realised that his new rôle would burden him with anxieties and difficulties. Still, after an appeal to his patriotism, he yielded—not, however, without stipulating that he should be supplied with strong forces, and allowed to deal more promptly, more strenuously than had his predecessor, with agitators. M. Cresson in fact, was utterly opposed to the somewhat lenient policy of the late Préfet, Edmond Adam; and throughout this volume (which was written at the close of the siege, yet, for personal reasons, has only just been published) we find him advocating the complete disarmament of every citizen, and declaring hotly at every Cabinet meeting that, so long as Parisians were permitted to keep their guns and pistols, an outbreak might be expected at any moment. Had his colleagues supported him on this point he feels convinced that, after some protests and a short struggle, a certain degree of order would have been maintained in the besieged city; but as both Jules Favre and General Trochu—fearing the temper of the town and the threats of Louise Michel's followers of Henri Rochefort, and other budding Communists—objected to the measure, M. Cresson

was reluctantly compelled to abandon his scheme of stripping Parisians of their weapons. And the consequences, he declares, were deplorable, irreparable, and as grave as he had previously pointed out. Again and again, he entertains us with stirring accounts of insurrections and plots, of the embarrassments of the Government, of Cabinet meetings anxious and almost interminable. As for M. Cresson, he had often to receive panic-stricken visitors who complained of the threats of assassination levelled at them by the agitators. Another of M. Cresson's tasks was to see to the safety of the *Venus de Milo*. Amidst its endless trials and anxieties, the Ministry thought ceaselessly of this statue, and, fearing that the bombardment might reach the Louvre or even that the Prussians on entering might bring about its destruction, it determined immediately to place it out of danger. And so M. Cresson tells us dramatically of how the *Venus* was carefully wrapped up, then hurried and hidden away on the stroke of midnight. Soon, however, M. Cresson and his colleagues foresaw the capitulation; they realised that it had become inevitable, imperative, but Paris remained blindly stubborn. Consequently Jules Favre and General Trochu were again condemned as traitors, while threats were heaped upon M. Cresson. All three bore up heroically; but it was with aching hearts and smarting eyes that the Préfet and Jules Favre drove over to Versailles to visit the Iron Chancellor. The passages that follow are perhaps the most interesting in the book—for we now get many a glimpse of Bismarck and his retinue, many a vivid character-sketch of Prussian officers. Bismarck was courteous, and pressed M. Cresson to dine with him. But M. Cresson refused; refused, also, champagne, port, and even a cigar which were offered to him in quick succession. Days later, however, the Chancellor's humour changed; he became rough and unamiable. He declared fiercely that, had a Prussian General exposed a city of two million inhabitants—a city not impregnable—to siege and famine, he would have been court-martialled in Germany. The French army, he protested, had "no discipline;" and raising his voice, he cried, "Vous n'êtes plus la grande nation! les Français ne sont plus enchaînés par le lien puissant de la patrie. Vous êtes une collection d'individualités, vous n'avez plus que des intérêts sous des masques divers." Exhausted at last, almost broken, M. Cresson felt himself compelled to send in his resignation; but it was refused again and again, and he consented to withdraw it and to remain in office until Jules Favre ceased to be Minister of the Interior. Then, he retired, refusing to serve under any other Minister. That M. Cresson has at last been persuaded to publish his experiences is a matter for congratulation. They shed much light upon the time of the siege, and, from first to last, are profoundly interesting.

Un Ménage Moderne. By Émile Pierret. Paris: Lemerre. 1901. 3f. 50c.

Like many a modern ménage, this is a worldly and unhappy one; but it differs from others in that it becomes united after a time. Here, misfortune brings husband and wife together, calls up all that is honourable and admirable in them; the past is blotted out, all is forgotten and forgiven, when Lucie and Georges Dubois, after being indifferent to one another for many years, after follies from Georges and flirtations on the part of his wife, sacrifice their own fortunes in order to save old Dubois from a financial disaster that would cast discredit on the family name. And the sacrifice is a great one. Though Georges must work, and he and his wife live in a modest flat, happiness comes with the change. No mawkishness mars the book. The transition from wealth to comparative poverty is accepted and endured with veritable philosophy; a touch of true realism is that which shows how Georges and Lucie avoid all reference to richer times. Moreover, each character is sketched in masterly style, particularly old Dubois and Libris, the superannuated, open-hearted tutor. Both style and construction are admirable; M. Émile Pierret has written a notable book.

L'Honneur d'une Femme. By Daniel Lesueur. Paris: Lemerre. 1901. 3f. 50c.

In the "roman contemporain," we often encounter the woman who tries hard to resist temptation, yet falls in the end. But M. Daniel Lesueur, like M. Émile Pierret, has left the beaten track. He has chosen a strong heroine, and her admirer, an officer in the army, at no time allowing his passion to overcome his chivalry, displays a devotion which is as touching as it is uncommon. The husband is a scamp, but the son is honourable; the gloom is dissipated, happiness sets in, when death carries off the husband and brings his wife and the officer together at last. Although there is but little "incident," M. Lesueur writes so gracefully and displays such chivalry that we thoroughly enjoyed his book.

Du Transaral à l'Alaska. By Vincent Ruggieri. Translated by Vincenzo. Paris: Plon. 1901. 3f. 50c.

The avowed aim of this volume is to dissuade would-be gold-seekers from pursuing their researches in Alaska. Little is said about the Transaral mines, but when the author arrives at the North of America, he draws many vivid pictures of the scenery, condemns the climate, and grows eloquent over the dangers and hardships that all emigrants have to undergo.

(Continued on page 644.)

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Most of this we have read before, but the book is not without original features. Moreover, it enjoys the distinction of being the only publication of this kind that does not contain photographs and illustrations.

Théorie de l'Ordre. By Jules Delafosse. Paris: Plon. 1901. 7f. 50c.

A more pessimistic picture of the present economic, political, and social condition of France we cannot imagine. According to M. Delafosse, his country, within the last twenty years, has "lost everything":—lost "her glory, her power, her credit, her respect in others, her self-confidence, her rank, her rôle, her health"! Still, we cannot allow that he produces positive evidence of this deterioration, and consequently his condemnations must not be taken too seriously. His point of view is, in fact, distorted. He cannot view an evil calmly, tolerantly—but pounces upon it, deals with it savagely, exaggerates its importance. His remedies are as violent as his reforms: moreover, in his treatment of the Press and the agitators in the Palais Bourbon, he displays an utter lack of humour. But the book is eloquently written, and contains some useful information.

The mere list of authors who contribute to the last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* (Mai 15. 3f.) is peculiarly attractive. M. René Bazin, most pleasing of novelists, writes the first chapter of an Alsatian tale; M. Boissier, whose "Cicéron et ses Amis" has become almost a text-book at Oxford, gives a delightful sketch of Tacitus, and his genesis as a historian. M. Hanotaux in the continuation of his "Impressions of France" explains the dichotomy of France into Paris and not-Paris. His argument is summed up in the evasive epigram "Paris vaut plus que la France, mais la France vaut mieux que Paris." The continuation of M. Albert Vandal's *Conquest of Paris* by Napoleon, amid much valuable historical matter, contains an amusing account of Napoleon's treatment of Mme. de Staël. A graceful poem by M. Charles Guérin is spoilt by a falling away in the last canto into an affected and detached pessimism. Among other articles there is a hopeful account of the power of guns to disperse hail, and a review of a mass of Italian political literature is grouped under the wide heading "Romantisme Politique et Politique Réaliste."

The following books will be noticed later on: "Un Lycée de Jeunes Filles" (Ollendorff); "Le Cœur de Louise" (Plon); "Lettres écrites d'Égypte" (Hachette); "Notes sur l'Éducation Publique" (Hachette); "Le Fer, la Houille et la Métallurgie à la Fin du XIX^e Siècle" (Colin); "Souvenirs du Lieutenant-Général Vicomte de Reiset, 1810-1814" (Calmann Lévy); "Les Finances de la France sous la Troisième République, 1870-1896," vol. iv. (Calmann Lévy).

For This Week's Books see page 646.

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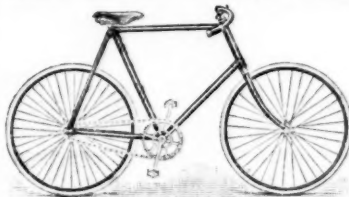
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Mr. H. W. Manly (Actuary and Manager) having read the notice convening the meeting,

The Chairman, who on rising was greeted with applause, said—Gentlemen, it is with very great personal satisfaction that I find myself again permitted to address you from this chair at another of our annual meetings, and I wish that the remarks that I shall have occasion to trouble you with could have been of the same general tone and character as those I have been able to address to you in previous years. We have passed through a year of almost unprecedented embarrassment in public events, and there have been some sorrowful instances in the history of this society. In this connection I will mention the death of an old and valued servant of this house—the late Mr. Stephenson—in the place now occupied so ably by our honoured friend, the actuary, on my left. His father was long connected with this society, and the son entered our service when quite a young man. The father died young, and the son became in due season the actuary of this society in succession to Mr. Morgan, and on his retirement he received a liberal pension from this society and enjoyed fairly good health, though not such good health as enabled him to take any active part in the management. A few months ago we received intelligence of his death.

Mr. Manly then read the minutes of the preceding annual meeting, which were signed by the Chairman, and the Auditors' Certificate. The Report, which was as follows, was taken as read:—

REPORT.

The Directors have pleasure in submitting to their fellow-members a report of the transactions of the Society during the year ending 31st December, 1900, together with the revenue account and balance-sheet.

272 new policies were issued assuring the sum of £272,948, of which £3,500 was re-assured, leaving the net amount at risk £269,448. The net new premiums received amounted to £12,649 7s. 7d., which includes £1,317 4s. 10d. single premiums.

36 immediate annuities assuring the payment of £3,548 9s. 6d. per annum were granted for the consideration of £33,724 12s. 11d.

Claims arose under 107 policies in respect of 72 deaths. The original sums assured by these policies amounted to £150,152, and the bonus additions attaching at the time of death amounted to £163,604 14s. In several cases bonuses which had been declared, amounting in the aggregate to £6,922 6s. 6d., had been surrendered either for cash or reduction of premiums, so that the total additions which had been declared on those policies amounted to £175,527 0s. 6d. On the average, therefore, every £1,000 of assurance which become a claim last year had been increased by additions to £2,348 12s.

From the enclosed detailed list of claims it will be seen that in two cases the sum assured and declared bonuses exceeded four times the original amount assured: in 18 cases the sum assured and declared bonuses exceeded three times the original amount assured; in 47 cases the sum assured and declared bonuses exceeded twice the original amount assured; and in 77 cases, or more than two-thirds of the entire number, the sum assured and declared bonuses amounted to or exceeded one and a half times the original amount assured.

Two annuities died during the year, by which the society has been relieved of the payment of £160 11s. per annum.

The total expenses of management, including the cost of the decennial valuation, amounted to £19,195 5s. 11d.; being 10½ per cent. of the premium income, and 3 per cent. of the total revenue.

As usually happens immediately after the declaration of a bonus, there was a large increase in the number of policies surrendered. Forty-two policies assuring £51,295, with bonus additions of £18,097 10s. attached, and on which premiums amounting to £22,713 13s. 1d. had been paid, were purchased by the society for the sum of £29,544 1s. 9d., which is equivalent to the return of £103 1s. for every £100 paid in premiums.

Bonus additions amounting to £96,577 12s. 10d. were surrendered for a cash payment of £45,391 14s. and a permanent reduction in the annual premiums of £930 14s. 3d.

There has, in consequence, been a slight diminution in the renewal premium income, and also in the amount of the funds, which now stand at £4,665,701 13s. 10d.

It is with extreme regret that the directors have to announce that two of their colleagues have deemed it their duty to resign their seats at the board owing to continued ill-health, namely, Hall Rolobey Price, Esq., who has served on the board for more than twenty-five years, and for nearly nine years was one of the vice-presidents of the society, and Patrick Cormie Leckie, Esq., who likewise occupied a seat at the board for the same period of twenty-five years. The directors cannot allow this opportunity to pass without recording their appreciation of the valuable services rendered to the society by these two gentlemen, and expressing the hope that, with complete rest, they may yet live many years. The directors, in pursuance of Regulation 45 of the Articles of Association, have filled up the vacancies thus occasioned by the election of Roger Cunliffe, Esq. (Messrs. Roger Cunliffe, Sons and Co.), of 22 Finch Lane, and Christopher William Parker, Esq. (Messrs. Barclay and Co., Limited), of Witham, Essex.

In accordance with the Articles of Association, three directors retire from office at the conclusion of the meeting. The directors who retire are the Right Hon. Walter Hume Long, M.P., George Matthey, Esq., F.R.S., and Reginald Abel Smith, Esq., and, being eligible, they offer themselves for re-election.

The meeting has to elect an auditor or auditors for the ensuing year, according to Regulation 64 of the Articles of Association, which provides that the number of auditors shall be determined by the society in general meeting, and that one of such auditors shall be a professional accountant or a firm of professional accountants. Frederick Whinney, Esq., offers himself for re-election as the professional auditor.

The directors trust that the members will constantly bear in mind that the extension of the society's usefulness must necessarily depend largely upon their introductions.

R. TWINING, President.

REVENUE ACCOUNT for the Year ending 31st December, 1900.

Dr.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Amount of funds at the beginning of the year—						
Life assurance fund	4,651,087	10	10			
Fluctuation reserve fund	30,000	0	0			
				4,681,087	10	10
Premiums—						
New £12,693 4s. 3d.; less re-assurances						
£43 16s. 8d.	12,649	7	7			
Renewal £175,535 5s. 11d.; less re-assurances						
£330 6s.	174,998	10	11			
				187,647	7	6
Consideration for annuities				33,724	12	11
Interest and dividends	161,086	11	0			
Less income tax	8,743	2	9			
				152,343	8	3
Registration fees and fines				38	12	6
Profit on sale of securities				6,102	9	3
				£5,060,965	1	3

Cr.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Claims—						
Sums assured	130,152	0	0			
Bonus additions	168,404	14	0			
				298,556	14	0
Surrendered policies				24,544	13	0
Surrenders of bonus additions				45,391	14	0
Annuities	7,644	4	8			
Less income tax	269	4	11			
				7,874	19	9
Commission (no commission allowed *)				Nil		
Expenses of management (including decennial valuation expenses)				19,195	5	11
Dividends and bonuses to shareholders (no shareholders *)				Nil		
Amount of funds at the end of the year, as per second schedule—						
Life assurance fund	4,635,701	13	10			
Fluctuation reserve fund	30,000	0	0			
				4,665,701	13	10
				£5,060,965	1	3

* The Equitable has never paid commission for the introduction of business, or employed agents; and, being a purely mutual office, has no shareholders.

H. W. MANLY,
Actuary and Secretary.

I have examined the books and accounts of the society, all the payments have been properly vouched, and, in my opinion, the above account is correct.

FREDK. WHINNEY,
Chartered Accountant.

25th April, 1901.

BALANCE SHEET on the 31st Dec., 1900.

LIABILITIES.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Total funds as per first schedule—						
Life assurance fund	4,635,701	13	10			
Fluctuation reserve fund	30,000	0	0			
				4,665,701	13	10
Claims admitted, but not paid				46,114	8	0
				£4,711,816	1	10
ASSETS.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Mortgages on property in the United Kingdom	1,635,564	8	0			
Loans on county rates	30,477	13	1			
Loans on poor rates	123,962	10	5			
Loans on general district and borough rates	735,737	7	2			
Loans on drainage rates	39,096	0	1			
Loans on the society's policies (within their surrender value)	221,140	14	0			
Investments—						
British Government securities	113,362	12	0			
Indian and Colonial Government securities	331,784	11	6			
Foreign Government securities	Nil					
Railway and other debentures and debenture stocks	471,597	13	4			
Railway and other stocks and shares (guaranteed preference and ordinary)	235,870	10	0			
East Indian Railway "B" annuities	68,750	0	0			
Colonial and foreign corporation bonds	45,400	0	0			
Corporation and county stocks	260,150	0	0			
Dock and harbour bonds	75,000	0	0			
Freehold estate (as re-valued in 1899)	61,562	0	0			
Ground rents	175,745	0	0			
Reversions	37,974	8	4			
Premiums due and unpaid	19,260	19	9			
Interest due and unpaid	10,149	16	8			
Less income tax	497	8	10			
				9,652	7	10
Interest accrued but not due	44,423	2	4			
Less income tax	2,224	3	1			
				42,258	19	3
Cash on deposit	25,000	0	0			
Cash in hand and on current account	12,430	7	1			
				£4,711,816	1	10

H. W. MANLY, Actuary and Secretary.

We certify that all our requirements as auditors have been complied with, and we beg to report to the members that we have examined the above accounts and balance sheet, and beg to state that, in our opinion, they are properly drawn up so as to exhibit a true and correct view of the state of the society's affairs as shown by the books of the society; and we beg further to state that the securities and mortgages for loans have been produced to us, and appear to be in order. We have verified the investment securities and the cash balance, and the valuation of the freehold estate has been produced to us.

FREDK. WHINNEY,
Chartered Accountant,
A. ST. G. MCA. LAURIE,
Wm. HINE HAWCOCK, } Auditors.

25 April, 1901.

The Chairman—Gentlemen, I beg now to propose that the report and accounts be received and adopted. I have to inform you, and I do it with unfeigned regret, that during the past year we have lost the services of two most valuable directors, one of whom was an old personal friend, known, I believe, to almost every member of this society—at all events, he was familiarly known to a very large number here—I mean our friend Mr. Rolobey Price. For the last two years his colleagues have observed with much regret, and not without some sad anticipations, that his health and strength were in a failing condition. Every possible consideration to which his eminent services to this society fully entitled him, were most carefully shown by all his colleagues, by whom he was held in the highest respect. His illness made more rapid progress than had been anticipated, and he finally succumbed to nature's decree. The high respect entertained for him on the Stock Exchange, of which he had been for many years the chairman, was felt by his colleagues. His knowledge and abilities were of peculiar value to us, as you can well imagine, in the selection of investments, and the avoidance of those which, in one way or another, might

not be found suitable to the requirements of this office. Under his guidance we steered clear of all difficulties, and we have a list of securities which we need not be ashamed to show or to quote as indicative of the pains which have been taken to do the best in our power under very difficult circumstances. Our regret at losing a colleague who had been for many years one of our Vice-Presidents has been increased by the resignation of our old friend Mr. Leckie, who was well known in City circles. He was a man of genial, courteous, and kindly disposition, devoted to this office, and never so happy as when he was occupying a seat at this board. He was never so disturbed and regretful as when he found, and his family confirmed the view, that the time had come when he would be obliged to surrender an office which he had held for so many years with universal approbation. We did our best to fill these vacant seats by appointing two gentlemen who have had such large business experience as we had found so much in our favour in the history of their predecessors, and I hope, therefore, that the wellbeing of the office and its careful and judicious management may still be leading features in the future as they have been in the past. I now come more particularly to the occurrences of the year which has now been closed, without troubling you at length on public matters which have been so familiar to us all in the exciting and anxious accounts which some of the press have put before us during the past twelve months. The prolongation of the war in South Africa and the general unsettlement of trade which has been involved in it, have had an effect on assurance companies. The fluctuations in the case of even the highest securities have been very great—far beyond anything we have known for a long course of years—and it consequently became a matter of considerable difficulty, sometimes from the extraordinary scarcity of the highest class of securities on the market, at other times from the exceedingly low value of money, which commanded on the best securities only a very low rate of interest, to conduct your affairs with advantage to the office and yourselves. But, notwithstanding this potent difficulty in the management, the business of the office has been kept up during the year almost beyond our anticipation. It is true there may not have been quite so many of the large type of policies issued, but we have had a good steady business, and our numbers have diminished to a very trifling extent indeed. We have established under the auspices of our indefatigable actuary two or three new classes of business, such as granting annuities, and a new class of policies for children, and other things which have met with favour at the public hands and brought in a good deal of business, and are likely to bring in a great deal more. The claims have been rather singularly heavy during the past year, but they have fallen chiefly upon policies of very old date; and notwithstanding the high figures which became payable to the representatives of the deceased, and which establish the special value for which we have contended for a long number of years past of life assurance when conducted by old-fashioned societies, modelled on such principles of safety as is the Old Equitable—notwithstanding the high sums we have paid out we have done well. The figures read large, but on the other hand the profits on the policies which have become claims have been correspondingly large, and we have only shared the lot which we knew must fall upon our shoulders some day or other. With these few remarks I will move that the report and accounts be received and adopted.

Mr. Geo. Matthey (a Vice-President) seconded the motion, and it was carried unanimously.

Mr. W. Edwards (a Vice-President) proposed that the directors retiring by rotation—the Right Hon. W. H. Long, M.P., Mr. George Matthey, and Mr. R. A. Smith—be re-elected. The board were very pleased at all times to have Mr. Long with them, inasmuch as he and Messrs. Matthey and Smith rendered good service to the society. He hoped it would be the pleasure of the members to continue them in the position they had filled so satisfactorily.

Sir Samuel Hoare, Bart., M.P., seconded the motion, which was agreed to.

The Chairman: The next business upon the agenda is the election of the auditors. Our friend Mr. Whinney, who has been our official auditor for some years past, is willing to continue in that position if it should be your pleasure and offers himself for re-election. The other two auditors are in the hands of the Court. I may mention that Mr. George Moger and Mr. G. P. Leckie are on the rota for the position of lay auditors.

Mr. W. Hine-Haycock proposed the re-election of Mr. Frederick Whinney, C.A., as professional auditor, and the motion was seconded by Mr. A. Laurie and agreed to.

Mr. B. H. G. Moger and Mr. G. P. Leckie were appointed auditors, at the same remuneration as hitherto.

Mr. W. Hine-Haycock said they ought not to break up without passing a hearty vote of thanks to the president, vice-presidents, and directors. The meeting could not fail to have admired the lucid manner in which the president had explained the details of the business of the past year, and he was sure they all hoped he might continue to enjoy good health and be able to preside over them for some years yet to come.

Mr. Powell seconded the motion, which was cordially adopted.

The Chairman—Gentlemen, on behalf of my colleagues who sit around me, and most thoroughly on my own behalf, I beg to offer you our united and best thanks for the kind manner in which you have received the remarks which our old and valued friend, Mr. Hine-Haycock, has been good enough to address you. We value his friendship and his support very much. I can safely say that there is not a member of this board whose whole and undivided attention and feeling is not wrapped up in the Equitable. It is an institution which tells its own tale and commands the respect of everybody connected with it, or who knows anything about it. I hope and believe that long after my term of office, and even that of the youngest member of the board, comes to an end the society will continue to enjoy the same careful management, the same public approbation, and the same success which has placed it at the head of kindred institutions. I am thankful to have this opportunity—one perhaps I could hardly have anticipated—of being able to address you once more. I beg to offer you my kind respect and regards, and best wishes that for a long time to come this society may be at the head of those institutions amongst which it has always held high and honourable distinction.

Mr. Leckie proposed a hearty vote of thanks to Mr. Manly (the Actuary and Secretary) and to the office staff for their successful exertions during the past year.

The Chairman: We as a board most cordially take part in giving a vote of thanks to our excellent actuary. Everybody who knows his indefatigable exertions, his devotion to the affairs of this society, and the amount of hard work he bestows upon it, will, I am sure, cordially echo the expressions which have been given utterance to. We unite in wishing Mr. Manly health and strength to carry on his labours here for many long years to come.

The resolution was cordially agreed to.

Mr. Manly: Gentlemen, I thank you most heartily for this renewed vote of confidence. I can assure you that it is always a pleasure to work for this old institution and all connected with it. I should be failing in ordinary courtesy and respect if I did not do what I always endeavour to do—the very utmost for the promotion of the interests of the society.

This concluded the proceedings.

LADY EVELYN GOLD MINES.

AN extraordinary general meeting of the Lady Evelyn Gold Mines, Limited, was held on Wednesday, at the Cannon Street Hotel, London, E.C., Mr. J. O. Oxley (the chairman of the company) presiding.

The Secretary (Mr. C. E. George) having read the notice convening the meeting. The Chairman, in submitting for approval the balance-sheet, said he was thoroughly satisfied with the work they had done. Turning to the profit and loss account they would see that in development a sum of £3,366 *ss.* 8d. had been expended. Considering that when their last balance-sheet was presented they had a very small amount of working capital, he thought they must admit that having spent so large a sum as £3,366 in actual development spoke very well for the work done on this side. The crushing charges and rent of battery amounted to £1,705. Unfortunately for the company, they had not sufficient water to erect a battery on their own property, and, consequently, had either to cart ore or hire another battery: so that £1,705 would have been saved if they had had their own plant, and they would have been in the position of being able to spend £5,000 on development, instead of the amount of £3,300. Turning to the other side, they would find that the gold recovered amounted to £3,600. Considering that that £3,600 represented practically the ore taken out of the mine since the date of the last balance-sheet, he thought it must be considered highly satisfactory. The feature of the Lady Evelyn property is the consistency of both the size of the lode and the gold it contains. With regard to the development of the mine during the last eighteen months, the report issued twelve months ago showed five shafts on the property. The total depth of these shafts was 844 feet, and they ran from about 120 feet in depth to 300 feet. They had crushed since they started the mine a total of 2,419 tons for a yield of 2,107 ozs., exclusive of the tailings. When they took into consideration the fact that the bulk of that crushing was done at the public batteries, and that the tailings must have contained from 10 dwts. to 15 dwts. of gold to the ton, he thought that was conclusive evidence that they had here a very rich and valuable property. With regard to the amount of ore in sight, it might be interesting to the shareholders to know that in April of last year the manager estimated that they had 18,000 tons, worth 25 dwts. to the ton. Shortly after that some people interested in the property got a separate report from an engineer of very high standing—he did not think it was any breach of confidence to mention that it was Mr. Gluisberg, the manager of the Lady Loch—and he estimated that they had 15,000 tons in sight which would produce 15 dwts. to the ton. Since then they had driven 200 feet on the 225 feet level and sunk the main shaft to nearly 300 feet, exposing a lode 4 feet wide and worth 1 oz. Quite recently some other shareholders had through Professor Nicholas made an examination of the Lady Evelyn Mine, and they had never had the property condemned by anyone who inspected it. He then went on to deal with the proposed reconstruction, and said: Our balance-sheet discloses to you the fact—a fact which has been known to, I suppose, every shareholder in this company for many months past—that we are utterly insolvent. We have been looking about to find a means of providing capital to carry on the developments in the way they should be carried on. I think I have you with me when I say that it is admitted that this is not only a rich mine, but a mine capable of developing into a dividend-payer at an early date; and had it not been for the fact that we had not obtained water, you would not have been asked here to-day to subscribe more money. With regard to the condition of the mine, our engineer says—and his statement is supported by others—that we have a property capable of supporting from 20 to 40 head of stamps. Now, to put that on the mine at once would probably cost £20,000, and we do not propose to do it. We propose to commence moderately, and gradually to increase our stamps out of revenue. We have secured a water site within half a mile of the mine, and our engineer estimates that, with £1,200 or £1,500, he will be able to conserve some 5,000,000 gallons of water, while the cost of pumping it on to the mine would be infinitesimal. With regard to the actual reconstruction scheme, as you all know, we have, during the last six or eight months, been suffering from very bad markets here as regards West African enterprises, at any rate, and consequently instead of reconstructing our company six or eight months ago, when it became necessary, we have struggled on until now. We propose to register a company with 300,000 shares at 10s. each, and to issue them credited with 7s. 6d. paid up, leaving a liability of 3s. per share. We propose, also, to amalgamate the Lady Evelyn with another company, called the Cuddingwarra, details of which I will give you. They have 100,000 shares issued, and those shares will be offered to their shareholders with a similar liability to our own. I may tell you that both we and the directors of the Cuddingwarra Company do not consider it will be necessary to call up more than 1s. or 1s. 6d. per share for some time. In this scheme, after issuing 115,000 shares to the Lady Evelyn shareholders and 100,000 shares to the Cuddingwarra shareholders, there will still remain some 85,000 shares, and we propose to deal with those shares by getting options upon West African properties, and thus to get our company introduced into the Jungle market. We have already been approached by several brokers and jobbers, who are willing to take up these 85,000 shares, all the shares which our shareholders cannot take up, and, consequently, if we succeed in carrying through this scheme we will start with a working capital of £45,000, and as we only require a small amount to make this mine a dividend-payer, we can then utilise some of our funds in working in the West African market. With regard to the Cuddingwarra property, that consists of 36 acres. The total amount crushed up to date has been some 4,000 tons, yielding 2,670 ozs. Their tailings went as high as 25 dwts. to the ton. That was in the Golden Gate lease, and the gentleman who has just returned from the management of that property, Mr. Robert Arna Wood, a gentleman who stands very high as a mining engineer, has declared that for the past four years the Cuddingwarra has been worked at the wrong end of the leases. On the northern leases the lode has been proved for 1,200 feet in length, and from 40 feet to 85 feet in width, and to be worth 10 dwts. to the ton, and he estimates that there are over 200,000 tons of ore in sight of this value. He has made over 600 assays, and has taken 100 tons of ore as being a fair sample of the whole line of reef, and put it through a mill, and it has produced 10 dwts. to the ton, without the tailings. The Chairman concluded by moving resolutions providing for the liquidation of the company, and for the carrying out of a draft agreement which had been entered into.

Mr. F. Dever-Summers (director) seconded the motion.

Sir William Quayle Jones said he thought the shareholders had not had sufficient time to consider this matter, and moved the adjournment of the meeting for fourteen days. Mr. Wilkinson seconded the motion for adjournment.

The Chairman explained that a confirmatory meeting had to be held, and therefore the shareholders would have at least a fortnight to look into the question.

On the motion for adjournment being put to the meeting it was lost, and the original resolution was afterwards carried, with only two dissentients.

Mr. C. E. George was appointed liquidator at a remuneration of 50 guineas.

CUDDINGWARRA GOLD MINES.

AN extraordinary general meeting of the Cuddingwarra Gold Mines, Limited, was held on Thursday at the Cannon Street Hotel, Cannon Street, E.C., Mr. J. D. Alexander, the Chairman of the company, presiding.

The Secretary, Mr. C. E. George, having read the notice convening the meeting,

The Chairman said the balance-sheet would show how the money supplied by the reconstruction scheme two years ago had been expended. This scheme provided about £15,000 to pay off the existing liabilities, to put up a cyanide plant, and to sink the main shaft to a sufficient depth to test the mine at 160 feet. The existing liabilities at that time amounted to some £8,000 or £9,000, and the expenses of underwriting the capital and registering the new company made up another £5,000. This left about £4,000 to purchase and erect a cyanide plant, and to recover the gold contained in the tailings which they possessed, and which were estimated to be of considerable value. Mr. Bowling, on whose recommendation the scheme was approved, led them to believe that the gold obtained from those tailings would enable them to carry on the mine, but in this they had been disappointed, and it had been insufficient to meet the cost of salaries and wages and the expenses here, and they regretted that they now found themselves again on the wrong side. It was not until they had appointed Mr. Arna Wood, an engineer of considerable experience and of thoroughly established integrity, that they were in a position to know what had happened at the mine. Mr. Wood found on his arrival there that practically all our tailings had been treated and the bulk of the gold lost, the extraction being very imperfect and badly executed. Only a few hundred tons remained to be treated on the Francis Reward claim. After having treated this, he removed the cyanide plant to the mine, which was some nine miles off, in order to treat the tailings there, which were the result of their own battery work. Here again he found things very unsatisfactory. The tailings, instead of being concentrated in one heap, were scattered all over the country, which made it impossible to recover the bulk of them. By this time our funds were getting exhausted, and as the South African war was going on reconstruction was out of the question. They therefore instructed Mr. Wood to limit his expenditure to practically the amount he could win from the mine itself. With these limited means at his command, Mr. Wood commenced a thorough investigation of the property. He found that nothing had been done on the two northern blocks, but on the southern block—the Golden Gate lease—there had been 4,797 tons treated, which had yielded 2,070 ozs. from the plates. Mr. Wood then tested the lode formation and the reef at the 165-foot level, and finding they were low grade, he thought there was nothing further to be done with the lease, which of course was a great disappointment. He then turned his attention to the northern blocks. He found that the whole hill running through the leases was composed more or less of lode material, and after taking about 1,000 samples, and making 600 assays, Mr. Wood came to the opinion that the lode formation was very good indeed. It went from 40 to 80 feet wide. He actually proved over 1,200 feet of this formation, and he considers, under a very conservative estimate, that they have over 200,000 tons of ore, which will average some 10 dwts. to the ton. In order to further prove this, he had mill tests made of 100 tons taken from the surface, being fair average surface samples. These gave over 10 dwts. to the ton. He went so far as to say that they have here not only one of the best mines in Western Australia, but one of the biggest mines in the world. To equip this mine it would be necessary to erect a 50-head mill. Water was there in an unlimited quantity, and there was a perfect site for the battery. Mr. Wood was of opinion that in the Cuddingwarra property they had the Great Fingall reef, and that at the lower levels we shall get as good results as they have got in the Fingall. He therefore came to them with confidence for more capital and proposed the following scheme:—That a new company be formed with 300,000 shares of 10s. each; that the shareholders of this company will have the right to apply for and be allotted a similar number of shares in the new company to those they hold in the old company. Then this company amalgamates with another company called the Lady Evelyn Gold Mine Company, the shareholders of which will have similar rights to ourselves, that is to say, they will have the right to apply for 115,000 shares. The balance which will be left will be some 85,000 shares, which will be taken by other parties. The shares will be credited with 7s. as paid up, leaving a liability of 3s. a share, but it is not proposed to call up more than 1s. or 1s. 6d. per share for some little time. This on the 300,000 shares would give us a working capital, after paying the liabilities of both companies, of some £40,000. It is also proposed not to confine ourselves entirely to West Australia, but to take up certain options in West Africa, which have been offered to us, and which may be of considerable value. This will very much assist us in getting rid of the 85,000 shares if the present shareholders do not wish to increase their holdings, because we believe with the properties in West Africa there will be no difficulty in getting these taken up. The Lady Evelyn mine is, I have every reason to believe, a very good property, and one which with a moderate further expenditure may be made a dividend-paying concern very quickly. They have a considerable amount of 1-oz. ore in sight, but at present they have not a sufficient supply of water. We propose if we amalgamate with them that we should bring them to a dividend-paying stage, and then increase the capacity on the Cuddingwarra property, where we hope eventually to have at least 50 stamps to treat this enormous body of ore. The Chairman concluded by moving the resolutions giving effect to the scheme.

Mr. Alexander Mathieson seconded the motion.

After a discussion with regard to the liabilities of the two companies, the motion was then put to the meeting, and carried with one dissentient.

Mr. J. G. B. Elliot was appointed liquidator at a remuneration of 50 guineas.

NITRATE PRODUCERS STEAMSHIP COMPANY, LIMITED.

THE sixth annual general meeting of the shareholders of the Nitrate Producers Steamship Company, Limited, was held on Wednesday, at No. 20 Billiter Buildings, E.C., Mr. John Latta (the Chairman) presiding.

The Secretary (Mr. John A. Walker) having read the notice convening the meeting,

The Chairman said that the result of the six years' working shows continued progress, and, while they were to be congratulated on the maintained success of the company, he was sorry to state that the prospects in the immediate future were such as to cause the directors considerable anxiety. He was accused of being somewhat pessimistic as to the future of shipping generally, and he only wished that these

accusations had been justified by results; unfortunately, the freight market had sunk to a level which even his pessimism did not contemplate. The actual rates of freight in many directions were probably not so low to-day as they were four or five years ago; but that must not be construed as proving that they are equally remunerative. They were less remunerative owing to the great increase which had taken place in working expenses, such as wages, insurance, bunker coal, repairs, and running expenses generally. Unfortunately, these charges showed no sign of following the collapse which had taken place in the freight market. Therefore, with earnings seriously restricted and fixed charges as they were when freights were booming, the final result of most voyages will be equal to about the worst the shipping trade had seen. The position was made the more acute owing to the unprecedented amount of new tonnage which had been placed on the market as a result of four years' successive high freights, further intensified by extensive sales of old steamers—as also new, for that part of it—to foreigners who were not fettered with restrictions such as British shipowners have to contend with, and so competed very effectively with them, making existence all the more precarious, and it was now once more a fight for the survival of the fittest. For many years the cry of "wolf" has gone up, but now he thought they had definite evidence that this objectionable animal had got them in its grip, and the time had undoubtedly arrived when the owners of cargo steamers not in regular lines must set their house in order, and pursue the lines of finance, which will, in these days of keen competition, more than ever be required to keep up the efficiency of their fleets, and also create reserves to carry them through depressed times. If they divide profits up to the hilt, or nearly so, paying dividends far in excess of what first-class liners are paying, ruin must in the end follow. He need hardly remind them that the policy which the board advocates is the policy which has been persistently followed by some well-known lines. The magnificent fleets of these lines have been built almost entirely out of reserves—that is to say, of money earned, but not distributed in dividends. Where would these lines have been if, after providing for mere wear and tear, they had divided their earnings up to the last penny? It is generally assumed that the position which British shipowners have now secured is so supreme that it will be many years before any other country can unseat them from this proud position. So far as cargo steamers are concerned, a close examination into the manner in which these are only too often financed will display the glaring fact that there is not much latent fighting material to spare, and our supremacy is, perhaps, more assumed than real, and the immediate future looks like affording a test. The great difficulty which directors invariably experience is in convincing shareholders that only a very small proportion of earnings over expenditure is in reality profit. They must study moderation in times of prosperity. Another very convincing reason why they should observe the most prudent methods of finance was suggested by the knowledge that most of the steamship lines are now adding large cargo-carriers to their fleets. These cargo-carriers pay much less insurance than ordinary steamers, and their purchase price is more often than otherwise provided by debenture issues bearing interest at the rate of not over 4 per cent., which charge occupies to these companies an equivalent place to their average dividend of £8 6s. 8d. per cent., a saving in their favour in this respect alone of £4 6s. 8d. per cent. per annum. Competing directly with boats so insured and so financed, the directors would be failing of their duty were they to overlook the precautions essential to such adequate administration of their finances as will enable them to compete on equal terms with the best of their competitors. Even those unacquainted with shipping must see the force of this argument. The competition from America was likely to be of a kind which will prove troublesome, inasmuch as it is stated that the steamers purchased by Mr. Pierpont Morgan were being acquired for the purpose of working in conjunction with higher interests, and that profit from them as an investment alone is not solely contemplated. It was an unfortunate innovation, as, while benefiting such a combination as the Billion Steel Trust, it would be very hurtful to the entire shipping trade, crushing, as it must, a large quantity of smaller tonnage out of the Atlantic to find employment in other directions, and must tend to lower rates all round. Obviously, great economies can be effected by amalgamation, and if amalgamations of the nature of the one to which he had referred become rife, which seemed certain, it was incumbent upon companies such as theirs to pursue the only course likely to mean continued success; and if that success could be attained after a dividend of 7½ per cent. had been paid to the shareholders, with the value of the shares kept at not under par, it would be a result equal to the best of most commercial undertakings. He had now the pleasure to propose: "That a dividend at the rate of 7½ per cent. per annum for the last six months, and a bonus of 2½ per cent., both free of income-tax, be paid, and that £45,000 be placed to reserve for depreciation, &c., and the sum of £11,486 2s. 9d. be carried forward to next year's account."

Mr. John Fleming, in seconding the motion, said with regard to paying only 7½ per cent., with a bonus of 2½ per cent., he thought that was the wisest course which could be pursued.

The resolution was unanimously agreed to.

Sir E. T. Gourley, in moving that a sum of £800 be paid to the directors in lieu of £600 which was voted last year, said the position of the company reflected the highest credit upon those entrusted with its management. They had a paid-up capital of £100,000, and they had earned during the last year £50,000.

The motion was seconded and carried unanimously.

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Vol. I., No. 3.
May 15, 1901.
Monthly, 6d.
Per annum, 7s.

BOURNE'S INSURANCE DIRECTORY,

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Published
February, 1901.
5s. By post, 5s. 6d.

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REGISTERED AS A NEWSPAPER.

Printed for the Proprietors by SPOTTISWOODE & Co. LTD., 5 New-street Square, E.C., and Published by FREDERICK WILLIAM WYLY, at the Office, 38 Southam-ton Street, Strand, in the Parish of St. Paul, Covent Garden, in the County of London.—Saturday, 18 May, 1901.